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PRESERVATION MASTER  
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## PREFACE

This volume comprises a series of papers specially prepared by the leading officers and representative workers of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. This organization now contains five thousand clubs, organized in forty-six state federations, with an aggregate membership of eight hundred thousand women. This includes clubs of all kinds, literary clubs and special societies, some with very definite and some with very general aims and purposes. It is, perhaps, not too much to say that this organization with its state federations, its great biennial conventions and its well developed machinery for reaching the homes of America, is one of the most potent influences for good or ill in the social and political life of the nation.

It is not intended in this volume to offer an apology for the existence of any or all of these clubs, but it has seemed to the editors a desirable thing to bring together, if possible, a brief statement of what these clubs have done and what the federation as a whole has done during the past ten years, especially in the general fields of philanthropy and charity, education and civic work. The editors, therefore, asked the officers of the Federation, who have very kindly co-operated with them in this endeavor, to secure from persons who could speak authoritatively a brief and fair discussion of the aims, tendencies and results of the woman's club movement, and to treat this question geographically, as the work in various sections of the country has necessarily been subject to different lines of development and responsive to different influences.

It is to be regretted that through a misunderstanding with one of the writers, who would have gladly co-operated in this work, there is no article representing the clubs of the Northwest. All the other sections of the country have been considered as originally planned. One article containing the opinions of various representative men concerning the woman's club movement, the opinions, collected officially by the General Federation a little over a year ago, is the only one that may seem to have a controversial tone and to

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depart from the general purpose of this volume, but inasmuch as it throws many sidelights upon the development of the club movement as a whole, it has been included.

An important contribution though not part of the volume as originally planned, is found in Miss Goldmark's article on "Working Women and the Laws." The briefer communications contain several addresses and reports which refer to, but do not adequately cover the work of the recent biennial convention held in St. Paul in May 1906. Several other papers and the usual departments of notes are included in this volume, being pertinent to, though not directly connected with the general topic under consideration.

Our special thanks are due to Mrs. May Alden Ward, Second Vice President of the General Federation, and editor of the Federation Bulletin, its official organ, for general editorial assistance in the collection and preparation of these papers for the press; and also to Mrs. Sarah S. Platt Decker, President of the Federation, for her enthusiastic co-operation in all stages of the preparation of the volume.

It is our hope that the volume as a whole will have some permanent value to those interested in the growth of the woman's club movement and will furnish to the members of the Academy an authoritative statement concerning its achievement and its possibilities.

THE EDITORS.

## THE MEANING OF THE WOMAN'S CLUB MOVEMENT

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BY SARAH S. PLATT DECKER

President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

---

The History of the Woman's Club Movement by Mrs. J. C. Croly (Jennie June) contains this passage in one of the opening chapters:

"The woman has been the one isolated fact in the universe. The outlook upon the world, the means of education, the opportunities for advancement, had all been denied her. . . . The opportunity came, with the awakening of the communal spirit, the recognition of the law of solidarity of interests, the sociologic advance which established a basis of equality among a wide diversity of conditions and individualities, and opportunities for all, capable of using them. This great advance was not confined to a society or a neighborhood; it did not require subscription to a tenet, or the giving up of one's mode of life. It was simply the change of a point of view, the opening of a door, the stepping out into the freedom of the outer air, and the sweet sense of fellowship that comes with liberty and light. The difference was only a point of view but it changed the aspect of the world."

This new note, which meant for the woman, liberty, breadth, and unity, was struck by the Woman's Club.

To the term "club" as applied to, and by women, may be fitly referred the words in which John Addington Symonds defines "Renaissance." "This," he remarks, "is not explained by this or that characteristic, but as an effort for which at length the time had come."

To rehearse even in the most cursory manner, the history and growth of the Woman's Club Movement, would be out of place, in a publication of this kind. Suffice it to say, that from the small beginning of the union of a few scattered literary clubs, called together by "Sorosis," of New York, in 1889, came the

following year, the organization of the "General Federation of Women's Clubs," the great State Federations, sometimes numbering forty thousand in membership, and the wonderful increase in individual club organization. Today the General Federation has a membership of approximately five hundred thousand women, extending into almost every town and city in our own land, and embracing in its union, clubs in nearly every foreign country.

It was soon evident to the leaders and students of this "Renaissance," so eagerly embraced, so instantly grasped, so greedily absorbed, that literary study, and mutual and self-improvement alone, as a foundation would not build a permanent structure. Gradually, but, surely and sanely, the women of the Federation are coming to believe that this union of forces is here, not a happening, not for a few years, but that it is a part of the plan of the world, that it is a great helpful, uplifting influence for the making of the Kingdom, the Kingdom of enlarged opportunities of higher ideals, of the redeeming spirit which can have no better word expression than the motto of the Federation:

*"Unity in Diversity."*

At the present time a stage of evolution has been reached, by which the outside work of the Federation is carried on by twelve standing committees. To enumerate all the achievements of the General Federation thru these committees would be impossible, but a glance at a few of their activities may not be without interest.

The Art Committee has sent hundreds of pictures over the country for schools, libraries, and into remote and lonely homes. Great practical sermons have been preached by loan exhibitions of originals, by classes under the supervision of the clubs, by preaching the doctrine of "good art or no art" in the decoration of public buildings, the erection of monuments, park gates, drinking fountains, etc. Perhaps the most far-reaching work inspired by the Federation, has been the placing of works of art upon the walls of public schools and the formation of School Art Leagues. In one small territory where distances were great, and educational facilities most limited, every school received two fine pictures through the generous efforts of the club women of the territory. One large department club in a Western City, has expended ten thousand dollars in schoolroom decoration; exam-

ples of this kind could be given in great numbers. The next step asked of Clubs and Federations will be the endeavor to have a Municipal Art Commission in every small town, to serve without salary, to be composed of men and women of experience and cultivation, so that the adornment of municipalities may be in the hands of experts, and not left to the selection of supervisors or aldermen, who may happen to be in office upon the crest of a partisan wave. This will be the keystone in the laying of a foundation to make America artistic, as a Nation. Under the head of "Civics" there is almost no limit to the work done by Clubs and Federations, in beautifying streets, in studying and carrying out sanitary measures, in establishing parks and municipal play grounds, in preserving sacred historical spots and natural glories. Two notable examples of the work of the Clubs in the latter instance, are the protection of the Palisades, and the establishment of the "Mesa Verde" National Park by the present Congress, for the preservation of the Cliff Dwellings in Colorado. Perhaps the best result of the Civics Committee work is the knowledge acquired by hygienic conditions which helps us to better our homes as well. This is a glimpse of the work of the Civic Committees. The third Committee on Civil Service Reform is comparatively new. It is not proposed to take up the great unsolved questions of National and Municipal Civil Service, but the scope of this Committee is to bring to citizens a careful study of the Institutions in which are housed, the Dependent, the Delinquent, and the Defective — the helpless members of the body politic. Hundreds of women and men as well, have given of their leisure, at the instigation of this Committee, to look into the condition of their State Institutions, to ask thru the press and public that only merit shall be considered, in the appointments, and that these helpless sisters and brothers shall no longer be victims of the spoils system. Much improvement and lasting interest has already been the result.

The Educational Committee is inducing a careful study of the conditions, not of your child and mine, but of all children. It has found millions of people who have no educational advantages in this good land of ours and is working to rouse public opinion to meet this mighty problem. The educational work in the Clubs has brought into loving relations, teacher and parent; been the

means of placing women upon School Boards, of obtaining rightful unpaid taxes to maintain schools, of establishing scholarships and of much other wonderful work.

The fifth Committee, called Household Economics, has endeavored to interest the women of the Federation in the practical problems confronting the housekeeper. The great majority of the members of the Clubs and Federations are the homemakers, the thoughtful, earnest mothers and wives, who are giving their best efforts to the solution of the problems of their own and their children's lives. They are the "Grand Army," the majority, the ninety per cent, who make the splendid, sturdy Americanism, which must be the hope of the future.

The Pure Food Committee, Number Six, is also of recent birth, but if its life shall continue to be as vigorous, as has been its early promise, it will indeed be said of it that it is "born well, and well born." Even the most absolute unbelievers in the public work of women have admitted that the work of the Federation through its Central and State Committees has been of potent influence in passing the Federal measure known as the Pure Food Bill. The next step will be an effort for similar legislation in the respective States, in order to make the National Law effective.

The Forestry Committee has a correspondent in each State Federation of which there are now forty-six. So valiant and increasing has been the warfare waged in this cause, that at the present time, nearly every State is aroused to the need of legislation and work for the protection of these necessary adjuncts to civilization and happiness—the woods and forests. The Industrial and Child Labor Committee deserves an entire article, if we would tell how it has gone into the lives of the workers, investigating, helping, giving a genuine uplift in hundreds of cases; coming now to demand a census of conditions from the nation itself.

Perhaps the most effective work done by this Committee has been the awakening of many States to the knowledge of the conditions of workers within their borders. State pride enters so largely into the composition of the American people, that it has been a long and arduous task to even obtain an admittance to the idea, that like commonwealths, individuals have grievous distempers, and need at times, even the surgeon's knife.

The Legislative Committee, in conjunction with the other Com-

mittees, has fought heroically for the Juvenile Court Laws, which now prevail in twenty-five States, for humane legislation, for the enactment of just property laws for women and children, and for the statutes which shall protect the Home and purify community and State. The Library Extension Committee: Perhaps at this moment, there are three hundred thousand books being sent over this land, books to the lonely, books to the ignorant, books to help and instruct and revive. In numbers of cases, the inception of a Carnegie Library Building, has been the small Woman's Club free library in the town or city. In one small State Federation of forty clubs in membership, thirty had founded free libraries, giving time, means, and most unselfish service in maintaining them. No greater advance can be made in the growth of a nation than by work of this nature, for the dissemination of good literature, means the overcoming of ignorance, and its train of disaster and dynamite.

A new Committee, suggested at the recent Biennial will be called the "Outlook" Committee, to whom shall be referred for investigation new work or plans proposed to the Federation.

We can give only this glance at the work of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, omitting, as impossible to describe, the mighty stimulus given to literary study and work, by means of the respective literary clubs and Literature Committees. Not even glancing at the wonderful living value of the Federation, in bringing to women the community idea, the fellowship which rounds and develops character, the encouragement of the student habit thereby keeping the mother abreast of her children, the teaching of the real things of life, the giving of purpose and healthful activities, to many otherwise lonely or useless lives. These achievements may not be recorded by pen or print, but they will go far in the making of the coming men and women.

In the final estimate, if we define this organization, if we reply to the oft-repeated question, What is the purpose of the Federation we should answer: The General Federation of Women's Clubs is not a reform organization *per se*. It is broadly sympathetic with reform, but it is not a propaganda. It is not philanthropic distinctively, though one of the greatest agencies of the day for careful study of methods and genuine helpfulness in this direction. It is not purely sociological, though with living inter-

ests, and a splendid record of service in uplifting work. It is in no sense political, yet its influence and power are to be seen in every State legislature, and it has the proud boast of having been a great factor in passing the long disputed Pure Food Bill during the present session of Congress. It cannot be called an academy or museum of art, yet one of the greatest authorities of the age has said that the years of study and demonstration in the clubs and federations have produced the wonderful results shown in the school-room decoration and much of the Arts and Crafts movement, by which a genuine love for, and knowledge of art is being instilled into the coming men and women. It is not a university, yet a surprising stimulus has been given to the study of literature, science, and history in hundreds and hundreds of American homes because of the club membership of mother or daughter. It has no bureau of publicity, yet through its membership of clubs and federations, it has been more far-reaching in disseminating knowledge and arousing public sentiment upon the questions which make for good citizenship, than any other body of workers, because of its broad, inclusive lines and wider outlook. The Federation may become a mighty factor in the civilization of the century, if wielded as a whole,—an army of builders, ready, alert, systematic, and scientific, not only a potent force in this generation, but transmitting to the next a vigor and strength which have never been given by any race of women to their inheritors.



## THE INFLUENCE OF WOMEN'S CLUBS IN NEW ENGLAND AND IN THE MIDDLE-EASTERN STATES

---

BY MAY ALDEN WARD

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The best definition yet given of the club movement is that of Mr. W. L. Bodine, superintendent of compulsory education in Chicago. He says, "Women's clubs are the natural product of a progressive sex living in a progressive age. They stand for the home, for the school, for art and literature and music; for domestic science and for the intellectual advancement of the American woman who presides over the American home. They are not theoretical," he adds, "they are practical; they act, they do things for the good of society; for the good of the community and of the country. The greater woman means the better nation." Evidently Mr. Bodine recognizes the movement as a national influence.

For the sake of convenience these articles are so divided that the work of different sections of the country is reported separately. It must not be imagined, however, that the work is done sectionally, or that the General Federation encourages sectional feeling; on the contrary it is one of the greatest unifying influences of the present day. It has perhaps done more than any other one agency to destroy sectional feeling. It binds together the women of the east and the west, the north and the south in bonds so strong that sectional prejudices are forgotten.

This article is to be limited to the clubs of New England and the Eastern-Middle States. For many years New England and New York boasted of being the pioneers in the club world. Sorosis and the New England Woman's Club were organized in 1868, and each claimed the distinction of being the first woman's club formed in the United States. Each has presented proofs and arguments to uphold its claims but the question of priority is not of so much importance now, since other clubs have come forward in other parts of the country, claiming a much greater age. Indiana and

Michigan point to clubs dating from the fifties. With so many conflicting claims any historian will find it difficult to decide just when and where the club movement began. We may however agree with the decision of Edward Everett Hale that "women's clubs came in upon us just at the time when they were most needed."

We are to review here only the records of the past decade, but in looking at the achievements of these later years it would be ungrateful not to recognize the fact that all this has been made possible by the labors and influence of these earlier clubs. Whatever may be true of other sections, the club movement in the east owes its inspiration and its growth to the New England Woman's Club, and to Sorosis, rightly named the mother clubs. They pointed out the way, they organized and fostered many new clubs, and they educated public opinion. To Sorosis belongs the additional credit of having started the movement which led to the formation of the General Federation.

The task set before us is to show "what the women's clubs of the East have stood for during the last decade, and to give a resumé of the results of their work in influencing the public sentiment of the region, respecting education, the standard of home life, the industrial position of women, the protection of childhood, and the moral and æsthetic life of the community."

#### *The Club and the Home*

Beginning then with the most important circle, let us ask what the club has done for the home? It has done much to raise the standard of home life in that it has helped thousands of club members to become better mothers and better home-makers. It has first urged the serious study of all subjects pertaining to domestic economy. Each state federation has a committee on household economics, and the chairman is usually an expert who has given years of study to the subject. These committees have prepared outlines for club study covering such subjects as home-sanitation (including drainage and ventilation), the building and furnishing of a home, food-values, sanitary and scientific cookery, and the relation of employer and employee. Many of the clubs have adopted these courses of study, and the number of those interested is constantly increasing.

But the influence of the club on the home is not confined

to the homes of club members. It extends to countless other homes because of the persistent efforts of the clubs to have domestic science made a part of the curriculum in the public schools. The majority of club women believe that some training in domestic science is an essential part of a girl's equipment for life. They have labored unceasingly therefore to have this study introduced into the schools, and in many of the cities and towns of the East they have succeeded. The Cantabrigia Club of Cambridge, Mass., obtained the consent of the school committee to establish a school of domestic science. The club furnished the plant and for four years sustained all the expense of the experiment. At the end of that time the benefits were so obvious that the city assumed the responsibility. This is but a single instance of many that might be quoted.

Another phase of club and federation work has had its influence on the home. The Arts and Crafts committees have not only proclaimed the gospel of combining beauty with utility in the home, they have also stimulated an interest in handicraft, and have fostered home industries in the different states, in a most helpful and practical manner.

#### *The Club and the School*

Outside of the home, the next larger interest is the school. What do the clubs of the East stand for in education? To answer this question in detail would require more space than the *Annals* would be willing to give to this article. From kindergarten to college there is no part of the educational field in which they have not interested themselves. From the first the club women have advocated the kindergarten as a part of the public school system, believing that it supplies an element not found in the homes of a great many school children. The yearly reports of the state federations furnish a long list of cities and towns which owe the introduction of the kindergarten to the women's clubs. The usual method is for the club to assume the responsibility and the expense of the experiment, and to carry it on until the authorities recognize its value and adopt it. The New England clubs have long been especially active in this direction, and the movement is constantly extending to other states. At the last annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Federation a resolution was passed recommending the

educational committee and the clubs to take full, immediate, and practical measures toward planting free kindergartens in every community.

In the same way Manual training has been promoted, the clubs often paying for its introduction, in order to educate the authorities as to its value. In Massachusetts eighteen clubs have taken this for their especial task in the last few years. The Federations of Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut have urged this subject upon their members. The work of the clubs in this particular direction has often been far greater than appears upon the surface, because even after the successful establishment of manual training, by means of a long and expensive campaign of education, the entire establishment is sometimes destroyed by the incoming of an ignorant or penurious board, whose first recommendation will be the overthrow of manual training, thus requiring the whole battle to be fought over again. In some instances this conflict has to be carried on anew with every recurring year in order to maintain that which has been secured with so much labor and expense.

Other phases of school reform and improvement have been undertaken by individual states with great results. The Maryland Federation labored successfully to have medical inspection established in the public schools of Baltimore. In the same state a movement for a school attendance law was inaugurated by the Arundell Good Government Club, and the law is now in successful operation in Baltimore. The appointment of truant officers was a part of this work, and the enforcement of this law is now supervised by an able official — a woman.

Another encouraging phase of school work undertaken by the clubs is the establishment of stamp-savings stations, to encourage the pupils in habits of thrift. Special stamps are sold to the pupils by authorized persons, and when a certain sum has been reached it is recognized by the saving's banks. By this means three hundred school children in Winchendon, Mass., have opened bank accounts. The public school pupils of Clinton, Massachusetts, have saved over two thousand dollars in five months. Brockton, Massachusetts, has over a thousand depositors in four grammar schools. It is estimated that this feature of club work is helping the children of Massachusetts to save not less than ten thousand dollars per

annum, and in future years this will largely increase, which is necessary as an object lesson if the purpose is to be realized. But of course the real purpose is the establishment of habits of thrift which will have far-reaching effect in character building. Nearly all reformers agree that one of the greatest evils to be overcome in this country, is the natural or acquired spend-thrift tendency of the American child, which leads to so many other vices.

The decoration of the school rooms and the improvement of the grounds have engaged the attention of the clubs in all the states of New England and of the Middle East. In hundreds of cases the barren, dreary school room, which the child instinctively hates, has been transformed beyond recognition by the tinting of walls and ceiling, and the installation of photographs, casts and friezes. Most notable work of this kind has been accomplished in Portland, Maine, where the clubs have expended large sums to obtain surroundings for the children which will cultivate a love of beauty and develop an appreciation of art value.

Important work of this kind has been done by the clubs of New York where the art committee of the State Federation offers advice to the clubs in regard to the principles of decoration, and the correct colors and tones for walls and surfaces, including those proper for the healthful condition of the eyes as well as for the general sense of beauty. The committee also furnishes adequate lists of appropriate photographs, prints, casts and reliefs for the successful management of this delicate and difficult art of school decoration, where the best intentions often end in failure through the lack of knowledge or experience. Work of the kind has been accomplished in almost every city and town of the East.

The love of beauty is also cultivated in the children by the improvement of the grounds, the planting of trees and vines, and the offering of prizes for school gardens. In many instances attention has also been given to the securing of better buildings and larger grounds, as well as to the location of the same in healthful and attractive surroundings. This has extended to so remote a distance as the improvement of the approaches and the general surroundings, in buildings already located, where such unimportant matters as environment had attracted no attention from practical-minded building committees. While an intangible quantity to estimate, it is nevertheless almost certain that in no point

has the quiet influence of the clubs been exerted to better purpose than in this matter of desirable location of school buildings with reference to ample grounds, dignified approaches, and if possible the natural surroundings of parks or open spaces where trees and grass plots may double the value which the original cost of the building adds to the community.

Questions connected with organization and administration in the public schools have also commanded the attention of the club women in the East. The State Federations have joined hands with the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, and conference committees have been appointed to consider these problems. The conference committee in Massachusetts, before taking any action, obtained the aid of an advisory council of educational experts among them being President Eliot, of Harvard University, Thomas M. Balliet, then of Springfield, Sarah L. Arnold, Dean of Simmons College, and Alice Freeman Palmer. A report filled with valuable suggestions was prepared by the advisory council and a copy thereof was sent to every federated club, together with a set of questions covering the same ground. These questions were intended to help the club women to discover and re-adjust improper conditions in their own communities. The aim of the committee has been to create a strong public demand for good teachers, for right conditions in school buildings, and for adequate salaries, that the best men and women may be secured for the schools. "This means," says the chairman, "no more politics in the schools, but boards made up of men and women who have the real good of the schools at heart, who shall appoint teachers for merit alone and not for favoritism of any kind." It means also the schools for the children, and not for the exploitation of home talent, and it means that it is the duty of the school board to secure the best available teachers regardless of the place of residence. The need of well equipped teachers, and of adequate salaries in the elementary grades of the public school is the subject they have kept constantly in view.

In Connecticut this union between club and college women has led to the formation of an organization called the Connecticut Women's Council of Education, in which the following bodies are affiliated: The Connecticut State Federation of Women's Clubs, the Connecticut Branch of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the Congress of

Mothers, the Holyoke Association, and the Teachers' League. Each society is assigned a definite line of special work, though all work in unison for certain reforms in the laws of the state, and for better prepared and better paid teachers.

The educational interests of the clubs of the East are not confined to the public schools. Many of them have endowed scholarships in the women's colleges. Others, not able to command so large a sum at one time, are paying from year to year the tuition of girl students. In addition to these lines of work in which all have an interest, several of the states are carrying on some special work adapted to local needs. The New Hampshire Federation has a permanent fund for the education of girls; each girl who receives this aid pledges herself to teach at least two years in the common schools of the state, after receiving her degree. The Maine Federation is concentrating its attention upon the rural schools. The New Jersey Federation has a fund for maintaining boys at the George Junior Republic. The New York Federation has been raising a sum of money for the establishment of a trade school for girls. At the last annual meeting it was decided not to try to found a separate school, but to turn the money over to the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union, of Syracuse, on condition that the organization resolve itself into a trade school for girls.

The Rhode Island club women succeeded in getting through the legislature a bill authorizing the board of education to provide instruction for the adult blind in their homes. As another state enterprise, the Vermont Federation has been striving for the consolidation of the small district schools into larger graded schools, with provision for carrying the scholars from a distance to the central point where the school is located. This is a much needed reform for Vermont, as it has been elsewhere, because it is impossible to secure good teachers for these small districts, or even to keep the school buildings in proper repair.

In Pennsylvania one special line of work has been the starting of school gardens, by giving plants and seeds to the school children with prizes to those achieving the best results therefrom. Both Pennsylvania and Massachusetts are giving attention to the "School City," the method developed by modern educators for teaching children the practical duties of citizenship, by having the

children organize and maintain all the institutions of municipal government, by means of boards and committees through which each student citizen shall learn the duties which his elders practice or fail to practice, as it more often happens.

The Massachusetts club women have another special line of educational work. Believing that patriotism is not bounded by state lines, they have joined hands with the women of Georgia in their efforts to combat the evils of child labor in that state. For four years the Massachusetts Federation has helped to maintain a model rural-school in the mill region of Georgia, where in addition to the usual elementary studies the children are taught manual training, domestic science, and gardening. Another open door was found when an opportunity was given to co-operate with the club women of Tennessee in their beautiful settlement work among the mountaineers. Two years ago the Massachusetts Federation established a settlement at Happy Valley, similar to the one maintained by the Tennessee Federation at Walker's Valley. Here cooking, sewing, and all the homely arts of every day living are taught to the mothers as well as to the children. This summary gives but an inadequate answer to the question, "What do the women's clubs of the East stand for in education?"

#### *The Club and the Community*

Outside of the family and the school, the next larger interest is the community. What have the Eastern clubs done for the community? If we could give the report of the civic committee of each club and of each state Federation we should have a partial answer to this question. The rule by which the club is guided in civic work is to "Do the task that lies nearest," whether it be to remove a pile of unsightly rubbish, to wage war upon the tree pests, or to prevent the destruction of a landmark. An impartial observer of the club movement says: "Wherever the public health, beauty or morality may be benefited, there the Women's Club is quick to find its opportunity. It is perhaps in such opportunity that it finds its most helpful field of action. Women have the leisure, at least all the leisure there is, and they may wisely use it to look about them and discover the ugly, the unwholesome and the unlovely. To arouse the community to a sense of this unpleasant trilogy, to furnish plans and money to transform it into



beauty, cleanliness and morality might well be, and frequently is, the chief object of organizations of women."

The most inspiring reports of civic work come from Pennsylvania. A passion for civic righteousness seems to have taken possession of the women of the Keystone state. "We find everywhere," says one of them, "a lively interest manifested by our women in municipal affairs. Women have long been house cleaners, and are showing themselves qualified to be town cleaners as well." The pioneer in work of this kind is the Civic Club of Philadelphia. Its chief function has been the educating of the city to a sense of its own needs. It equipped the first summer playground, and maintained it until public opinion required playgrounds to be incorporated in the school system. The city now maintains twenty-four playgrounds. The Civic Club organized the first vacation school; the city now maintains fourteen such schools. The Civic Club started a school for backward and deficient children; the Board of Education now recognizes it as a necessity and has assumed its support. The Civic Club provided free public concerts on the piers; the city has taken them off its hands. Its last work has been the starting and equipping of school gardens. It is also carrying on the program of the Good Citizenship League in eleven public schools.

The clubs of Pittsburg and Allegheny have united to form a permanent civic committee, which has sub-committees on child labor, tenement house reform, and public baths, also on cleanliness of streets, street-cars and public parks, as well as on the disposal of garbage. The clubs of Allegheny carried on, last summer, nine play-grounds, and vacation schools with a daily attendance of between three and four thousand children. The clubs of Pittsburg have an equally creditable report in regard to vacation schools and play-grounds. The Civic Club of Harrisburg, after an experience of seven years, gives the following encouraging report: "It is no longer necessary for us to continue, at our own cost, the practical experiment we began in street cleaning, or to advocate the paving of a single principal street as a test of the value of improved city highways, nor is it necessary longer to strive for a pure water supply, a healthier sewage system, or the construction of play-grounds for the pleasure of our fellow citizens. This work is now being done by city councils, by the

Board of Public Works, and by the Park Commission. We have a Park Committee appointed to co-operate with the Commission on parks and parkway construction." This club, however, has not ceased its effort for the public good. It has a league for good citizenship, a committee on school decoration, and another on traveling libraries for factory employees, besides a committee to visit the jails and to inspect the city dumps.

The interest in public improvement is not confined to the clubs of the cities. Nearly every club in the Pennsylvania Federation reports some definite effort for the benefit of the community. One club bought a street sprinkler for the town, and raised enough money to keep it in operation all summer. Another supports a trained district nurse for the benefit of the poor. One keeps the town clock in order and beautifies the grounds about the railroad station. The Civic Club of Carlisle offers a prize to the school children for the best essay on civic improvement.

The clubs of New Jersey are not behind those of Pennsylvania in their interest in town improvement. The report of a club in Cranford may be taken as a typical one. It tells of good work in collecting the refuse, in cleaning the streets, in cleaning up waste places, waging war upon impure milk; and it has established a hospital fund that the needy, even though a stranger, may be cared for if sick or injured. Flemington, a town of twenty-five hundred inhabitants, has a women's club of eighty members, which reports the following improvement: A plot of ground belonging to the county was a receptacle for unsightly and unsanitary refuse. The town authorities would do nothing toward cleaning it because it belonged to the county. The women's club obtained permission to clear up the place, and with a subscription of one hundred dollars commenced work. Fifty dollars was paid to a landscape architect for plans and a list of materials. Each grade in the public schools was asked to give an evergreen tree. The doctors and lawyers were asked to give the shade trees, and so on until the whole town became interested. Iron settees were made at the town foundry, the band-stand was removed to this location; and, altogether, what had been a disgrace became one of the ornaments of the town. The same club erected a drinking fountain, also succeeded in having the surroundings of the railroad station and the freight office made more attractive, and aided the

school children in starting flower gardens. Jersey City clubs silenced the junk men's bells, and solved the waste-paper problem. Other clubs report that street signs have been placed, posters removed from trees, improper show bills and pictures taken down, approaches to cemeteries improved, and better police protection obtained in suburban villages.

Equally strong is the civic pride of the club women of New York. Joseph Choate said of them in a recent address: "They are vastly more interested than we are in the administration of the criminal law, in the preservation of law and order, and in the suppression and punishment of crime." He declared that Mr. Jerome would owe his election more to the women of New York than to the men. The women certainly did valiant and effective work in the campaign for reform of municipal affairs. The chairman of the Civics committee of the New York Federation urges each club to select the evil that seems greatest in its own particular place:

"See if there is nothing needed in the way of material municipal cleanness, or moral municipal cleanness; the training of good citizens, or the making the city or town more beautiful. Under these heads would come: Clean streets, pure water, garbage disposal, prevention of the smoke nuisance, prevention of unnecessary noises, putting a stop to uncleanness in public places and public conveyances; also the planting of trees, shrubs, and vines along streets and public highways, reducing the bill-board nuisance, training children in leagues of good citizenship, and last but not least, looking after the moral atmosphere of the cities and towns, especially that surrounding the school children."

To recount the work done for community betterment by the clubs of New York and of the six New England states, would simply be to repeat what has been said of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Each club has attacked the local problem that was most pressing. Local philanthropic work has appealed especially to the clubs of New England. Many of them are supporting vacation houses, fresh air camps, district nurses, and hospital beds. The Woman's Charity Club, of Boston, built and owns a hospital, raising annually about ten thousand dollars for its support. While the Women's Industrial Union, of Boston, expends annually over forty

thousand dollars in helping the poor to help themselves, by means of acquiring some self-sustaining employment.

*The Club and the State*

Notwithstanding the great activity of the clubs in town and city improvement, their energies are by no means limited to local interests. By far the most significant feature of the club movement has been the formation and growth of state federations, which is simply the recognition by women of the advantages of united, organized action. Maine was the pioneer in this direction, the Maine Federation having been organized in 1892. Massachusetts followed in 1893, and all the Eastern federations have now passed their tenth milestone. The far-reaching influence of this form of organization cannot be measured, but it is already evident that there is no more effective machinery in existence for the creation of a right public opinion. This is not simply the result of organization, but also of the size and mere numerical proportion of the civic bodies thus brought together, which has now become so conspicuous as to make them truly representative of their respective states. The New York Federation now numbers two hundred and twenty-three clubs, with a membership of forty-two thousand. The Massachusetts Federation numbers two hundred and thirty clubs, with thirty-four thousand members.

Who would place a limit to the influence which may be exerted in a commonwealth by these thousands of earnest, intelligent women, when fully awake to their duties and responsibilities as citizens. Nor is the question of their being fully alive and awake as to their responsibilities any longer in doubt. With each year the machinery becomes more effective as the states become more thoroughly organized. Especially is this noticeable within the last year or two, wherein the public spirit of the rank and file of the membership has approximated the enthusiastic devotion which a few years ago was only found as a rule among our most advanced leaders. So pronounced has this become that men and women the country over, who are trying to obtain practical results, as creators of public opinion, have come to look upon a federation meeting as a golden opportunity. They have come to regard the meetings of these organizations as probably the shortest and quickest of all

the avenues by which the public conscience may be reached and public questions influenced.

The club women are closely related, by communal and family ties to the most influential men in all our communities. They may be the busy American men who have little time for anything outside their immediate responsibilities, but so much the greater is the opportunity to influence them directly through the members of their own family and their own community. Besides this the proceedings of the clubs are now reported in the daily press with a fullness which is rarely obtained by any except political interests, and this widens the influence of the clubs to the entire community. This is not simply to please the club members, for the press would respond to no motive that was not deeper than that. It is because of the value to the entire community of the subjects which are brought before the club meetings. It is for the reason above given, because the creators of public opinion recognize the clubs as their best and most effective allies and are therefore always glad of the opportunity to present the vital issues of the day and hour to audiences which will at once assure them of the widest hearing, and the most sympathetic co-operation. The clubs are selected by natural law from the women who think, and who as a rule have the masterful capacity to act in obedience to definite thought and conviction. Add to this the power of feminine tact, feminine conscience, and feminine spirituality, and as the St. Paul Pioneer press has remarked, "their power for good becomes irresistible."

To bring thousands of such women into one form of organization, with allied purposes and high ideals was a great work. The women who planned it were women of high aims and of noble purposes, whose only thought was that of service to the entire community. At the first annual meeting of the Massachusetts Federation the subject assigned for discussion was: "What are the duties of the Women's Clubs to the State?" It was treated under four heads: educational, philanthropic, political, and æsthetic. This is the question which the federations are still trying to answer, and as "New occasions teach new duties," the answer can never be a fixed formula. Each year seems to point out some new avenue of usefulness.

Owing to the recent efforts after unification, each state federation now has its permanent committees corresponding to those

of the National Federation. Of these, the committees which most directly concern state interests are, respectively, the committees on Civics, Forestry, Industrial Conditions, Child Labor, Library Extension, Pure-Food, and above all Civil Service Reform.

Of the above, forestry goes hand in hand with civics, and it is difficult sometimes to separate the two subjects. The definite objects of the forestry committees are: the creation of state forest reserves, the establishment of some instruction in forestry in every school, the appointment of a trained forester in every state. They endeavor also to create enthusiasm for the planting of trees, and for the protection of those we have. The results in tree planting have been most satisfactory. One club in Pennsylvania, by offering prizes to the school children, secured the planting of one thousand trees in four years. The children have also been instructed how to care for the trees. A club near Boston planted four hundred shade trees along the streets of the town. Another club planted, in the last year, fifty-seven trees, two hundred and seventy vines, and two hundred and thirty shrubs. Work is also being done to protect the trees against their natural enemies: human, other animal, and insect. Special efforts are being made to prevent the frightful destruction of road-side trees by trolley and telephone companies.

In addition to these interests which are common to all the states, several of the eastern federations have had special problems of their own. Everyone knows the heroic labors of the New Jersey Federation to prevent the destruction of the Palisades. A fund is now being raised for the purchase of a memorial park and the erection of a lookout tower to perpetuate the memory of the victory. The work done by the Pennsylvania Federation for forest reserves is also a matter of history, as Pennsylvania now has the finest forest reserves in the eastern states, and the effective work of the clubs in securing them is well known.

The task laid upon the New Hampshire Federation is that of protecting the forests of the White Mountains from the vandals who would convert them into lumber and paper. New York women have been doing similar work for the Adirondacks and the Catskills, as well as trying to prevent marauders from robbing Niagara of its grandeur. The women of Massachusetts found their forestry problem at their very doors. It is that of waging persistent war-

fare against the gypsy and the brown-tail moth, the deadly enemies of the shade trees. The forestry chairman has the zeal of a crusader, and so contagious has been her enthusiasm that nearly every club in the state responded to her call. One club alone by obtaining the aid of children, secured the burning of 375,000 nests. At the same time continuous pressure was brought to bear upon the legislature to obtain an appropriation for the extermination of the pests.

The Civics committees of the federations are also fighting the enemies of the Commonwealth. They have done much for the prevention and cure of tuberculosis, by establishing camps, by distributing literature, and by keeping before the people in every way the measures to be taken to protect the public health. The Massachusetts Federation owns a traveling health library, which contains books relating to the retention and the restoration of health from this disease, also photographs showing the proper outdoor method of treating tuberculosis.

The Civic committees have labored to eliminate the tramp evil, by trying to convince the average woman that indiscriminate back-door feeding is a wrong to the community: they have also encouraged legislatures to establish a work test with proper lodging houses. Other public enemies against which their efforts have been directed are: the bill-board nuisance, patent-medicine frauds, and indecent advertising.

The Civics committee is also doing constructive work in regard to the treatment of delinquent children. The Eastern federations are copying the West in their efforts to have the system of Juvenile Courts established. It is conceded that the five bills passed by the Pennsylvania legislature, providing for the Juvenile Courts, owed their passage to the persistence of the Pennsylvania Federation and its president. The New York Federation is trying to secure an appropriation for salaried probation officers.

It is not possible to overlook the work of the federations in establishing libraries. The home, the school, the community, the state and the nation have all benefited by the labors of the Library Extension Committees. Most noteworthy results have been accomplished in Maine, where the State Federation not only provided traveling libraries for the less favored places but, in 1898, secured the passage of a law creating a library commission and

establishing traveling libraries as a state provision. The State Commission has always included one or more of the officers of the federation in recognition of their interest in the subject. Nearly a hundred traveling libraries are now circulating in the state, and the growth of permanent free libraries has also been remarkable.

The Delaware Federation has done notable work in this field. Beginning by sending out traveling libraries at its own expense, it has received three appropriations from the state, and has succeeded in securing the creation of a State Library Commission. Vermont is placing libraries in the rural schools. New York is establishing a permanent library at Stony Brook, on the coast of Long Island, where the population consists of sea-faring men and their families. The Pennsylvania Federation secured the passage of bills to increase the efficiency of the traveling libraries of that state.

As nearly every village in Massachusetts has a free library, the Federation has been able to aid the less fortunate states. The committee has sent out to various parts of the country, in the last three years, forty-seven traveling libraries in cases, several permanent libraries to rural schools, and in addition over twelve thousand books to various places in the West and the South from which requests have come. All of these were for permanent libraries.

#### *Industrial Conditions of Women and Children.*

A problem that comes very near to the hearts of club women is that of the position of women and children in the industrial world, including the new conditions which surround the wage-earning woman, and that most sorrowful product of our civilization, the wage-earning child. The account of what has been done by the clubs of each state to lessen the evils of child labor, has already been published in the *Annals of May, 1905*. Since that time, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts have made some progress in protective legislation. In the East as in the West, this is the subject which takes precedence of all others, and each club and each state federation may be counted upon to continue the fight against this evil and co-operate with every agency that is seeking to remove it.

Each state federation has its committee on the Industrial Con-



dition of Women and Children. The program outlined by the Pennsylvania committee is a good illustration of the method adopted. The duties of the committee as indicated in the program are four-fold:

*First.*—To gather information and statistics of the deplorable and almost unbearable conditions, under which women and children were working in this State.

*Second.*—To find from physicians, philanthropists and experts, just what the ideal requirements should be, concerning the age, the sex, the mental and physical progress, the hours of work, the sanitation, and the living wage, in the many varied industries in the State.

*Third.*—To discover what efforts are being made to enforce existing laws — poor though they may be — what reforms are being agitated, and what public or private philanthropy is doing to help the situation.

*Fourth.*—When all these facts have been gathered and authenticated, to place them at the disposal of every Woman's Club in the State, so that each Club may become in its turn, a center for a campaign of education, and be enabled to use to the full its influence. And in so doing the Federation will throw its great power towards ridding Pennsylvania of the stigma of its unintelligent and inhumane treatment of the women and children who work.

In Massachusetts a joint committee from the State Federation and the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union has been carrying on an investigation into the dangerous and injurious trades in which women are engaged. A special agent was employed and much valuable information obtained in regard to the rubber trade, cordage factories and steam laundries. This information was used effectively at the State House at the hearings on the bill calling for an appropriation to secure an investigation of dangerous trades by the Board of Health. This last winter it was decided to make a thorough study of the conditions under which women and children are working in the different industries throughout the state. The academic part of the investigation includes a comparative study of the laws creating facilities for factory inspection throughout the United States. The committee is preparing to publish a simplified statement of the laws of Massachusetts relating to women

and children, which will be distributed to club women and wage-earners.

The Federation has done all that it could to further the cause of trade-training for girls, believing that the one great gift which can be conferred upon the girl who must earn her own living is to help her to become an effective worker. All possible influence was brought to bear in favor of the measure just passed, providing for industrial training for boys and girls. On the other hand they try to protect the product of such toil from selling at too low a remuneration. All our Eastern states co-operate with the Consumers' League in trying to educate the conscience of womankind so that we shall not be willing to buy or to wear garments that have cost too much of human life. The local branch of the Consumers' League is generally a member of each state federation, and most of the states have a special committee to further the objects of the League.

The Massachusetts Federation has one organization which ought to be mentioned, though we can do little more, for to describe its usefulness would require a volume. It is the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, of Boston.

Organized in the eighties, the Union now includes a sustaining membership of three thousand women; it possesses real estate worth one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, and has an annual income from all sources of about thirty thousand dollars. It is a vast hive of co-operative industry for the benefit of working women and women producers. It secures a market for the product of women's industry to the amount of nearly fifty thousand dollars per annum.

In addition to its Handiwork Department, the Union carried on for sometime a School of Housekeeping which is now a part of Simmons College. It has also an Employment Department of a very different character from the ordinary employment bureau. Its Committee on Hygiene is constantly looking after the well-being of women and children in factories, and especially in any kind of employment where surroundings are likely to be injurious. The Department of Practical Ethics endeavors to secure justice for any class of people who may be neglected. It initiated the movement to improve the condition of the Adult Blind. The Befriending Committee is one of the most beneficent which could exist in a modern city, and its name explains its office.

But probably the most significant of all these activities is the Union's Protective Department, which looks after the rights, legal and ethical, of any woman in the city whose case is brought to its attention. The Union employs a lawyer who gives free legal advice to those not able to pay for it. As an object lesson in trade-training the Union has maintained classes in millinery, in dress-making, and in salesmanship. After two years of unwearied effort, the Union has succeeded in securing legislation to protect the ignorant wage-earner from the evils of the installment plan, and from the tricks of the unscrupulous money-lender.

#### *The Pure Food Campaign*

The report of the Pure Food committee of the General Federation is published in this number of the Annals. It is not necessary therefore to dwell upon what has been done in the East. The report shows that the General Federation and the state federations stood as a unit for the passage of the pure food bill, as they did for better state laws, and the better enforcement of the laws already in existence. Senators and congressmen from every state testify to the pressure brought to bear upon them by the women's clubs. Now that the national bill has passed, there is still work to be done in the way of disseminating information in regard to foods, and food adulterants; and in examining the sanitary conditions controlling the production, storage, and sale of food products.

#### *Interest in Legislation*

Each state federation has a legislative committee — not for the purpose of initiating legislation, but to examine measures presented, bring before the clubs those which should receive attention, and obtain concerted action when needed. That the influence of the clubs upon legislation is not underestimated is shown by the fact that whenever a bill is presented relating to the material or moral welfare of the public, an effort is sure to be made to obtain the endorsement and co-operation of the state federation of women's clubs. An imposing list could be made of the measures which the clubs have helped to pass or to defeat.

#### *Civil Service Reform*

Of all the tasks undertaken by the federated clubs by far the most important is the work for civil service reform, because its

principles underlie all the others and are necessary for their success. This is not the place to dwell upon the value of the merit system, but rather to speak of the efforts of the club women of the East to carry its message far and wide. The Women's Auxiliary, of the Civil Service Reform Association, was organized in New York in 1894. A few years later the Massachusetts Federation was induced to take an interest in the subject, and to appoint a committee to further it.

In 1900, at the convention of the General Federation in Milwaukee, a place was given on the program for a fifteen minute paper. In 1902, an hour was allowed for the presentation of the subject, and a civil service reform committee was appointed. In 1904, at the St. Louis Convention, a whole session was devoted to it, and the assembly voted to make this one of the main issues of the Federation for the next two years. When this subject was first brought before the clubs, it was necessary to educate the club women themselves; to convince them that this was a question in which they above all others should have an interest. The Auxiliaries of New York, Massachusetts and Maryland did valiant service in this direction. Literature was distributed, public meetings were held, speakers were sent free of charge to any club willing to furnish an audience. Club women were quick to recognize the importance of this issue and its close relation to every phase of human life. It offered a natural and legitimate field for patriotic work.

The results of this work have been almost incredible. The majority of the state federations have already appointed civil service reform committees, and many of the clubs have formed classes for the serious study of the merit system. A syllabus, prepared by Professor Salmon, of Vassar College, was published by the Massachusetts Federation and thousands of copies were distributed. A history of the movement prepared by Mrs. Oakley, was published by the General Federation and widely circulated. The purpose of the federation is that "Every woman in the United States shall understand the principles on which our government was founded, and use her influence toward maintaining them."

One of the far-reaching results obtained has been that in connection with the public schools. Pamphlets prepared for the purpose by Mr. Edward Carey and Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff have

been furnished to schools willing to use them. Up to the present time over one hundred thousand copies of these pamphlets have been sent, and there is record of over thirteen hundred schools and colleges which have used them. This work is carried on in the belief that "when every child in the United States is grounded in civil service reform principles, the spoils system will be condemned by public opinion and will cease to exist."

Prizes have been offered by the Auxiliaries for the best essay on the merit system. A beautiful medal has been designed for the New York and the Massachusetts Auxiliaries, by Miss Frances Grimes, under the direction of Mr. St. Gaudens. Bronze replicas of this medal are to be used by individuals and by clubs as the reward for school prize-essays on civil service reform. It is believed that the medal will be more attractive than any money prize in teaching of the subject and its reward. "The figure of a woman typifying the State, with the impartial scales in one hand, is specially timely in this year of civic victories, and the words, 'The best shall serve the State,' were written for the medal by her whose life has fulfilled them, whose death now illumines them with rays of light,—Mrs. Charles Russell Lowell."

At present the attention of the clubs is being directed to state and municipal institutions. Clubs are asked to investigate local conditions and to seek especially for the application of civil service reform principles in institutions where the dependent, the defective, and the delinquent are cared for, that those to whom the care of these unfortunates is entrusted may be chosen for fitness and not for political influence. Legislation is also being carefully watched that no backward steps may be taken in any state. A bill giving preference to the Spanish war veterans, on the civil list, has twice been presented to the Massachusetts legislature. A protest was sent in carrying the signature of 3484 club women.

The initiator of this work for civil service reform, the very soul of it from the beginning up to the present time, is a frail little woman, born in South Carolina and living in Massachusetts, with patriotism so large that she has no knowledge of sectional lines; with a love of country so deep, and a passion for social righteousness so strong, that she has been able to kindle the fire of enthusiasm in the hearts of thousands of club women who have never seen her face. It is because of such leadership that the results

have been achieved. It is because of the thousands of women with a spark of this same divine fire, working together for better homes, better schools, better surroundings, better industrial conditions, and better laws, that we have faith in the club movement as a beneficent influence in the United States. They may not be able to solve all the problems of our complex civilization, but the organized effort of these thousands of earnest, intelligent women, cannot be without its effect on the future of our country.

## THE WOMEN'S CLUBS IN THE MIDDLE WESTERN STATES

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BY MRS. JOHN DICKINSON SIERMAN,

Recording Secretary of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

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In setting forth "what the women's clubs of the middle West have stood for during the last decade," and giving "a résumé of the results of their work in the public sentiment of this region respecting education, the standard of home life, the industrial position of women, the protection of childhood, and the moral and esthetic life of the community," the subject must be considered from several viewpoints. The club movement as it stands today is the result of an evolution, and is still in an evolutionary stage.

A long step forward in the evolution of the club movement in the middle West — for the purposes of this article the states of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Missouri, and Ohio — was the organization of the clubs into state federations and the union of the clubs, either directly or indirectly through the state federations, with the General Federation. This step was taken about a decade ago — by Iowa in 1893, by Illinois and Ohio in 1894, by Michigan and Missouri in 1895, and by Indiana in 1900. To review the work of the last decade, therefore, is in a sense to review the work of the General Federation in the middle West.

It must be remembered, however, that the middle West has a club history which goes back to a period long antedating the organization of the General Federation in 1889 in New York. In some cases this history dates back to the '50s, as in the case of the Ladies' Library Society of Kalamazoo, Mich. (1852), and the Minerva Club of New Harmony, Ind. (1859). In the '70s powerful clubs — the Chicago Women's Club is a good example of the type — were doing work in the middle West that had compelled their recognition as semi-public bodies. These clubs joined the General Federation and took up its work, but they neither lost

their own individuality nor abandoned their own particular purpose.

The Middle West Club, as organized a generation ago by women of middle age, was primarily a club for the educational and intellectual betterment of its members. In many cases the daughters have followed in their mothers' footsteps, and this type of club is strong in numbers and membership.

The second stage was marked by the organization of clubs devoted to the benefit of the local community or some particular part of the community and by the enlarging of the scope of the work of existing clubs to include some phase of public endeavor — a movement away from self-culture and toward service.

The third stage is the acquisition of sufficient power through organization and united effort to make the clubs a strong factor in municipal, state, and national affairs. The full realization of this power and its responsibilities has only just come to the mass of the club women. Henceforth their motto is concentration of purpose and united action. Co-operation is the order of the day among the clubs, as elsewhere.

It must be kept in mind that these several stages of development are in a sense co-existent, inasmuch as many clubs are successfully working out the three-fold mission of benefiting their members, bettering the local community, and co-operating in state and national activities. These conditions call for a consideration of the club movement from several points of view. For it is evident that the club movement stands for many things: — the various kinds of mutual benefit extended by one member to another and by one club to another; the local endeavor of the individual club to benefit the community or some particular part of the community; the purposes that have animated the state federations, and the impulses that have come to the individual clubs and state federations through the General Federation. This gives large variety to the scope, and produces an enormous total of work accomplished in almost innumerable ways.

As it is difficult to set forth all that the club movement stands for, so it is impossible definitely to bound its accomplishment. For the influence of the clubs upon the community has been both direct and indirect. As to the direct influence a definite statement of results may be made. The indirect influence, while possibly no less effective, cannot be even approximately measured.



The club membership of the middle West is relatively large. There are more than thirteen hundred clubs, with a membership of over 75,000. However varied the purpose of the individual club, the mass of the membership has stood for certain cardinal principles of American life that make for the good of the community—such things as education, better schools, patriotism, temperance, and the protection of women and children. Even when they have not taken the initiative or publicly co-operated, the consistent attitude of these thousands of club women on these questions has been a vital factor in the growth of the community.

When women have worked openly for these and other things of value to the community they have sometimes worked alone, often in co-operation with public governing bodies, and not infrequently against the opposition of lawmaking bodies. When the women undertake at their own expense a work that does not call for legislation and can by no possibility infringe upon the rights and privileges of the man, there is always official tolerance, frequently approval, and sometimes co-operation. In general, however, when a work calls for a diversion of the public funds, or requires the sanction of legislation, or seeks to change the existing laws, it is looked upon with indifference or hostility by the powers that be and the lawmakers.

Here is a case in point: The club women of Illinois established, supported, and developed the traveling library system until it reached such proportions that they felt that the state should assume the burden and the responsibility. They therefore offered the libraries, amounting to ten thousand books, to the state and presented a library extension bill to the Legislature. The measure was defeated; in fact, it never had a chance of passage. The fact that club women in the middle West have secured the legislation that they have is the best possible proof of the strength of the club movement.

Where there is active co-operation between the clubs and organizations of men, or between the clubs and governing bodies, sometimes one and sometimes the other takes the initiative. It is often difficult, therefore, to determine the share of credit to which each is entitled. It is also frequently true that laws directly in the line of work of the clubs have been passed without the initiative or even the co-operation of the clubs. These conditions should be

kept in mind; the score to the credit of the club women is long enough without adding debatable items.

The middle West is not a homogeneous territory, from the viewpoint of the club movement. Different conditions in different states have created different needs, and consequently different lines of work. It is not possible to say that all of the middle West is equally interested in the amelioration of child labor, for example, or in forestry, or in juvenile courts and probation laws. And Indiana would be the first to cry out in protest were one to say that all the states are equally interested in art and literature.

Having thus cleared the ground, one may begin to set forth what the club movement in the middle West stands for and recount what has been accomplished. And it is not necessary to attempt to set forth in detail what the club movement stands for. The count of what has been accomplished is sufficiently comprehensive, since there has been accomplishment in every line of work. It is sufficient to say, in passing, that the clubs of the middle West stand for all that the General Federation stands for, and more, for they co-operate in the work of the central organization and in addition have their own particular and peculiar missions.

The work of the General Federation is largely done through its standing committees. To name these committees, therefore, gives at a glance the main divisions of the work to which it stands pledged. They are: Art, civics, civil service reform, education, forestry, household economics and pure food, industrial and child labor, legislation and library extension. Most of these divisions are broadly inclusive and stand for manifold activities. Thus education as understood by the General Federation means, among other things, better schools and more of them; vacation, manual training, industrial and cooking schools, compulsory education and the Juvenile court.

The club movement, considered from the viewpoint of its effect upon the membership, may be dismissed in a single paragraph. No intelligent person can doubt that the club has been a blessing to women. It has appeased a mind hunger. It has been a liberal education to many women, both in general culture and the conduct of affairs. It is largely the training of the club that has made possible the manifold activities of the club movement.

The rank and file of the club women of the middle West

form a truly admirable body of women — loyal, sincere, and thoroughly in earnest. Well to do, well informed and capable, unhampered by the very rich or the very poor, the flower of every community, they are at once an aristocracy and a democracy of brains with the watchword, "The Home, Patriotism, and Good Government."

The most promising investment for the good of the community is the education of the coming generation and into this investment the federated club women of the middle West have poured a wealth of time, effort, and money. They have labored whenever and wherever the opportunity offered — on their own initiative, in co-operation with school and municipal bodies, and in conjunction with other organizations. They have been active in every phase of the educational question — the public schools, compulsory education, child labor, and the Juvenile court. Women have served on boards of education, and as county and state superintendents, and state university trustees. The clubs have secured and even forced the passage of educational laws. In fact, so manifold have been the activities of the clubs that the ground can be covered here only in a general way, with the citation of a few notable cases of special endeavor.

In working for the cause of education the club women have not neglected the things that too often seem petty and sentimental to the men of affairs. They have endeavored to bring the school and the home closer together through mothers' clubs, child study circles, and social intercourse. They have tried to cultivate the esthetic sense by gifts of pictures and casts, by the artistic decoration of schoolrooms, and by prizes for flower culture. They have worked to make the schoolhouses and grounds pleasing as well as useful. In the direction of bigger things from a material viewpoint the credit for many new schoolhouses belongs to the women. The establishment and maintenance of free kindergartens are common; in many cases — as in that of the Under Age Free kindergarten, originally established as a charity by the Wednesday Club of St. Louis — these schools have grown to be notable institutions. Manual training has had a good friend in the clubs; united club effort in Iowa, for example, has established it in six schools in the last two years. Ohio crowned five years' hard work with the success of securing legislation for four normal schools in 1902 and appro-

priation for two. The women of Ohio also helped to win a very notable victory in the campaign to revise the school code after the modern methods obtaining in Chicago and St. Louis; it was the club woman and the educator against the politician

Compulsory education is of course a vital factor in education, and the middle West club women are entitled to a very large share of the credit for the existing laws. In Illinois the bill that became a law in 1897 was drawn up by a joint committee from the State Federation and the Collegiate Alumnae association; it is a good law, providing for attendance between the ages of 7 and 14 for sixteen weeks, twelve of which must be consecutive, and for truant officers. The Iowa women secured a law providing for sixteen weeks of attendance. The Missouri Federation, after two unsuccessful attempts through co-operation, prepared its own bill, got it through the Senate and then united with the friends of another similar bill and secured the law. In Indiana the legislative committee has recommended that the compulsory school age be raised from 14 to 16. Illinois club women have been largely instrumental in removing all inconsistencies between the compulsory education and child labor laws. It follows as a matter of course that the middle West clubs have been active in the movement for parental, truant, and industrial schools, which are a natural and necessary outgrowth of the compulsory education crusade. A notable case in this line of educational work is the raising of \$40,000 by the Chicago Women's club, through its members and friends, for the Glenwood industrial school for boys, a model institution in the country near the city.

An interesting contrast with compulsory education is the work of the vacation school. So interesting is the contrast that it is worth while to set forth with some detail the operations of a notable vacation school undertaking by the women's clubs of Chicago. In 1896 the Civic federation opened one vacation school — the first in Chicago. The next year one was maintained by the Chicago University settlement. In 1898 the women's clubs took up the work, and the Chicago vacation school committee of women's clubs opened five schools. The last two years this committee has maintained eight. There is a vacation school board with a club woman president and secretary; the other members consist of eight club women and eight men. Since 1898 the club women have con-

tributed nearly \$25,000 to the support of these schools. Last year they gave \$4,321, an increase of \$300 over the year before. This money was contributed by more than fifty clubs in the city and its suburbs. Individual contributions amounted to nearly \$2,000. The Chicago board of education appropriated \$5,000 toward the payment of salaries of teachers. The total enrollment was 6,583, and the total average daily attendance was 4,360. The cost of maintaining eight schools five weeks was \$10,335.63. The cost per capita, based on the average daily attendance, was, therefore, \$2.60, and on the total enrollment, \$1.56. Nearly a thousand dollars was expended on excursions. Twenty-eight nationalities were represented. The Italians led, with 1,424, and the Jews were a close second, with 1,408. The Germans were third, with 1,074. Other nationalities with noteworthy enrollments are: Bohemian, 670; Irish, 434; American, 373; Norwegian, 270; Swedish, 269; Russian, 246; Polish, 214. The only per cent of enrollment above twenty is in the case of the Italians and Jews. The highest per cent of enrollment of the other nationalities mentioned is 16 for the Germans and 10 for the Bohemians; the others range from 6.59 for the Irish to 3.25 for the Poles. The American per cent is 5.66. These eight vacation schools could be filled many times over. At some of them the rush on opening day is something astounding and terrible. When the school in the Ghetto was opened last year a mob of 1,500 men, women, and children fought in front of the building for a chance to enter, and three policemen were powerless. Every day of the term a crowd stood at the front door waiting for some child to drop out through sickness. Probably 15,000 children were turned away from the eight schools. It is estimated that thirty vacation schools would no more than do the work that eight are trying to do. Comment on this situation is unnecessary.

Thus it is seen that there has been consistent and persistent effort along all lines of educational progress. There have been many noteworthy examples of special endeavor. Three of these may be mentioned as examples of the almost infinite variety of educational effort. Accepting as axiomatic the contention that the school child cannot put forth his best intellectual effort unless well nourished physically, several Chicago clubs are furnishing luncheons in high schools, where the noon recess is short. One club, the

Englewood Woman's club, has made such complete arrangements that it is able to serve hot and well cooked luncheon to 430 pupils in twenty minutes. Four years ago the Michigan State Federation pledged a memorial loan fund of \$5,000 for the benefit of women students in the University of Michigan. The fund is a memorial to Mrs. Lucinda Hinsdale Stone, the "mother" of the Michigan federation, and the first woman upon whom the university conferred the degree of LL. D. The fund has been raised and paid into the hands of the university regents. School Children's Aid, a society that has grown out of the Chicago Woman's Club, furnishes needy children with clothes and thus keeps them in school; the society is eleven years old and every year has collected from \$7,000 to \$9,000 for this purpose.

In any discussion of the standards of home life in the middle West a serious and perplexing problem thrusts itself to the front — the homemaking-housekeeping-domestic service problem. It is serious because it threatens, especially in the cities, to substitute apartments in a family hotel for the old fashioned home. It is perplexing because we have no servant class, because working women are generally unwilling to accept domestic service as a means of gaining a living, and most of all because the woman heads of families are doing little to improve the situation. The plain fact is that the present day American housekeeper is with difficulty convinced that she has anything to learn and that she has any responsibility outside of her own family. She groans over the drudgery of housekeeping and is in despair over the domestic service problem, but she makes little progress toward lightening her own burden, and does nothing at all toward improving the general situation. The only ray of light to be seen — at least in the middle West — is in the work that the club women are doing in the line of household economics. Here we have abandoned the old theory that woman needs no training in the art of homemaking, and comes by the necessary knowledge through inheritance and natural ability, and that each woman is sufficient unto herself. We feel that homemaking is the one thing above all others for which we are responsible, that we alone can elevate it, and that we must work out our salvation through scientific investigation and co-operation.

An object lesson in the most advanced thought of the middle

West club women is the School of Domestic Arts and Science of Chicago, established and managed by club women. Last year it had 1,100 students. Each year there is an exhibit of household work, at which a special effort is made to bring out labor-saving devices and the things that will make housekeeping more intelligent, easier, and more interesting. The underlying idea is that the common sense of the American homemaker will in time lift this work to a professional basis through scientific investigation and the contact of the theoretical worker and the practical housekeeper. In combination with the Chicago Kindergarten institute there is a course in which young women are trained in the care of the child as well as the administration of the home. Students and trained teachers from this school go out among those too poor to attend classes, teaching the best use of utensils and material, the cutting of children's clothes, and the trimming of hats. Prizes are given to the housekeepers and cooks of the city.

In all six states there is evidence of genuine and widespread interest, which is shown in a variety of ways. Ohio is preaching the addition of a fourth R to the existing system of education—the R of right living. Iowa reports twenty-one clubs taking household economics as the course of study for the entire club year. Indiana has adopted the slogan "Pure Food and Right Living." In Missouri the practical kitchen committee of the Domestic Science Club of Livingston County has prepared blue prints and details of a model kitchen to cost no more than a piano; these plans have been sent on request all over Missouri and to Minnesota, New Jersey, Arkansas, Kansas, Illinois, and Indiana. The Michigan women aided in securing the appropriation for a \$90,000 building for the Michigan Agricultural College for the exclusive use of women studying domestic arts and science. Everywhere the women have been instrumental in establishing courses and departments of domestic science in all sorts of educational institutions from the vacation school to the university. In Illinois, for example, five years ago a new school of domestic science was opened at the University of Illinois, where the first school of the kind in the United States and possibly in the world was established in 1870; three years ago a domestic economics department was opened at the University of Chicago; in 1903 James Millikin of Decatur completed a half million dollar university in which a domestic

science department has a prominent place; the Bradley institute at Peoria, founded by Mrs. T. S. Bradley, has an extensive department in two divisions; the Legislature has placed household economics in the five normal schools of the state, all the high schools of Chicago and vicinity and of many other cities have domestic science courses; two years ago the American School of Household Economics, a correspondence school, was established; Lewis institute, Chicago, has a domestic science department.

This activity would seem to indicate that the club women of the middle West are sincerely endeavoring to undo the work of their sisters who have "degraded kitchen work and placed a social ban on all women who dare take it up as a means of livelihood," and that a halo will yet be placed on the head of the "woman with a broom" as well as of the "man with a hoe."

As to the pure food department of household economics, the work of the club women of the middle West must be measured rather by promise than by performance, inasmuch as they, as well as the General Federation, have been stirred to activity only in the last two years. In general the shocking conditions which have been lately revealed are largely due to a shamefully lax enforcement of the existing state laws. Illinois has a fairly good law and a food commissioner. Indiana club women have secured a state laboratory of hygiene under the control of the board of health, charged with the duty of examining food and drugs and aiding in the enforcement of health laws. Michigan has a law administered by a state dairy and food commissioner; its dairy laws are fairly effective. Missouri has been interested to the present only in the protection of its dairy interests; the club women of the state are now pledged to a local pure food crusade. Ohio's law is fairly satisfactory and the women have been satisfied to work for its enforcement. Iowa's law covers only dairy products; the women intend to present a pure food bill to the next Legislature.

In addition to lax enforcement of the existing laws the lack of uniformity in the several state laws is a very unsatisfactory feature. The absence of a national pure food law was of course the worst feature of a bad situation. The operation of the new national law will cause a most radical change in the conditions. Governmental regulation of interstate traffic will put a stop to the shipping of adulterated and spurious wares from one state to an-



other and the unscrupulous manufacturers and dealers of the big cities will have to stop poisoning consumers in other states. The club women of the several states will then have a fair field and a chance to work out their own salvation by enforcing and amending existing laws and by creating new legislation. But their strongest weapon lies in the fact that the women do the buying of food supplies for the family; in its final analysis the pure food question must be answered by the wives and mothers. The club women of the middle West have here a glorious opportunity and a noble work ready to their hand. They must educate the ignorant woman as well as appeal to the educated woman who buys. United refusal to buy impure foodstuffs would of course bring about a pure food millennium without the aid of the law.

As to the relationship between the club movement and the industrial position of women in the middle West, there is little to be said except from a philanthropic viewpoint. Much is being done in the several states to bring about closer relations between the club women and the working women. In Ohio, for example, the club women are going into the factories and making a thorough study of conditions by personal acquaintance with the women operatives. A typical philanthropy is that of the Klio association of Chicago, an organization of women that serves meals at cost to 1,000 working women a day. The quarters include rest and sick rooms and a reading-room with a library of over 1,000 volumes.

To the club women of the middle West belongs the honor of bringing a new element into jurisprudence in the Juvenile court law. If the whole club movement of the six states in the last ten years had accomplished nothing else it would still be well worth while. The Juvenile court is an instrument for good whose tremendous power is only beginning to be felt. The first court was established but seven years ago, yet already eighteen states have adopted the Illinois law, either in whole or in part. While the Juvenile court is not a cure-all, and is an instrument and not an end, it is the best solution yet devised of the problem of dependent and delinquent children in crowded communities. It is perfectly safe to say that within a very few years it will be in every considerable self-respecting city in the United States.

The old idea was that the child, like the adult who had broken

the law, must be tried and punished. The new principle is that even if the child has violated the law the state must act as a wise and just and merciful parent, and so deal with the case that evil tendencies will be eradicated and the juvenile offender educated into good citizenship. Perhaps the spirit of the law may be condensed into the phrase, "A square deal for the child."

The movement that has brought about the Juvenile court had its beginning in the Cook county jail in the city of Chicago. Under the old conditions the police courts and jails swarmed with children, who were herded with mature criminals. For several years the Chicago Woman's club had been maintaining a school in the Cook county jail, and the conditions that obtained convinced the club members that the system was not only foolish but wicked. They determined to make an effort to secure a distinction in the eyes of the law between the mature criminal and the irresponsible child. The club secured the services of an able jurist, the late Harvey B. Hurd. He drew a bill, which was indorsed by the Chicago Bar association and passed by the Legislature. The new law went into effect in 1899. The Juvenile court statute sets forth the power of the state to exercise through its courts of chancery its guardianship of the child. It establishes this guardianship over two classes of children—dependents and delinquents. A dependent child is not only one who is homeless, destitute, or abandoned; it is also dependent if it has not proper parental care, and if its home, by reason of the fault of its natural guardians, is not a fit place for it. A child is delinquent not only when it violates the law, but also when it is incorrigible, when it consorts knowingly with criminals, or when it is growing up in idleness and crime. The age limit of the original law, 16 years, has been raised to 18. The court does not sit as a court of law, but of chancery. The court merely assumes the guardianship of the child, and does not punish the delinquent, when not paroled it is sent to some reformatory institution. The traditional accompaniments of a law court are done away with; the chancellor is judge and jury, and practically all the machinery. This is the gist of the Illinois law of 1899, the basis of most of the laws of other states. Colorado made an important addition in the delinquent parent law, providing for the punishment of offending parents by the Juvenile court. Illinois in turn adapted this provision to local conditions.

In this new court the power intrusted to the presiding judge is enormous, but it is a characteristic of our American people that when an occasion arises the man is not wanting. This occasion has brought out at least two men of striking genius — Judge Ben B. Lindsey, of Denver, and Judge Julian W. Mack, of Chicago. Without attempting to compare the two men, one may say that the former does his marvelous work under more favorable conditions. Judge Lindsey, for example, has heard about two thousand cases in four years; Judge Mack hears about eight thousand cases a year. Judge Mack cannot personally stand in the place of parent to several thousand children; the intermediary is the probation officer. Most of these are women, and the club women have not only raised money for the payment of their salaries but have seen that the positions were filled with the right kind of women. Each officer is in charge of a district and about fifty boys. This officer visits the child's home and requires frequent reports from him. The plan in most states is to make the probation officer a paid employee of the court, the supposition being that the work of volunteers is not generally satisfactory. Indianapolis, however, has developed the volunteer system to a high state of efficiency under the Indiana law. There there are about 150 officers, and no one officer has more than three children under his charge; often there is but one. Recently in Chicago Judge Mack has supplemented the services of the regular officers by making probation officers of the members of the Visiting Nurse association, who last year ministered to fully seven thousand sick people in poor families — another beneficent work which the club women encourage with moral and financial support. Other cities in Illinois, including Springfield and Rockford, have Juvenile courts. In Iowa the Congress of Mothers, belonging to the state federation, took the lead in securing the Juvenile court law of that state. Ohio's law was passed in 1904, and the credit is largely due to its club women, the passage of the law having formed one of the paramount issues of club work in that state. The Michigan law, passed by the last Legislature, has been declared unconstitutional. The club women are preparing a new bill to be presented in 1907, and are pledged to see the fight through. Missouri has Juvenile courts in St. Louis and Kansas City, and to the united effort of the club women is due the existence of the law.

Out of the work of the Chicago Juvenile court has grown a new movement with the purpose of waging war on those conditions and persons contributing to the dependency and delinquency of children. It has just been organized and has hardly yet begun operations. The organization is chartered by the state under the name of the Juvenile Protective League of Chicago. The purposes of the league cannot be more concisely and comprehensively set forth than in the language of the charter, which is:

1. To organize auxiliary leagues within the boundaries of Cook county.
2. To suppress and prevent conditions and to prosecute persons contributing to the dependency and delinquency of children.
3. To co-operate with the Juvenile court, compulsory education department, state factory inspector, and all other child helping agencies.
4. To promote the study of child problems, and by systematic agitation through the press and otherwise to create a permanent public sentiment for the establishment of wholesome, uplifting agencies, such as parks, playgrounds, gymnasiums, free baths, vacation schools, communal school settlements, and the like.

Much is expected from this body. The board of directors numbers twenty-seven, and contains men and women prominent in Chicago reform work. Among them are Judge Mack, Judge Richard S. Tuthill, Judge Mack's predecessor in the Juvenile court; W. L. Bodine, superintendent of compulsory education; Miss Harriet Fulmer, president of the Visiting Nurses' association; Graham Taylor of Chicago Commons, and Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, who has given so generously to Hull House. There are also lawyers, police magistrates, and several prominent club women on the board. The work will be localized through the organization of branches, each branch exercising a direct supervision over a specified territory. The league will act as an aid to the police authorities in the suppression of vicious dance halls, disreputable fruit stores and ice cream parlors, and other resorts where children are exposed to dangerous influences; it will also be prepared to carry on independent prosecutions. An element of strength is that the work of the league will be entirely voluntary and no financial assistance will be asked. There will be no hired agents, the members taking upon themselves the burden of seeing that the laws framed for the pro-

tection of children are enforced. It is most devoutly to be hoped that out of this beginning will grow a movement destined to be as widespread as that of the Juvenile court.

Nor does the work of reclaiming and protecting the child stop here. The preliminary steps have been taken toward the organization of a National Juvenile Improvement Association, which is intended to be truly national in its scope. It is to be organized on lines suggested by Judge Lindsey, of Denver, and prominent in the movement are Judge Mack and Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House. All these facts would seem to indicate that society in general, and especially in the middle West, is beginning to awaken to its responsibility toward the child. These facts concerning the Juvenile courts and the movements growing out of their successful work are set forth beyond their proportionate length for the reason that some of them are new and because of the infinite possibilities that they suggest.

The protection of childhood is a cause very dear to the hearts of the middle West club women, and their efforts have been largely instrumental in bringing about comparatively favorable conditions in this territory. Child labor is a problem of national interest and importance, yet it is one that must be solved by each state for itself — a fact that adds many complications to an already intricate question. The conditions in the middle West are comparatively favorable because in general the child labor, compulsory education, and Juvenile court laws, which are complementary parts of the whole scheme of protection for the child, have been brought into fairly harmonious relationship. All of the six states have compulsory education laws; all have Juvenile court laws except Michigan, where the law enacted has been declared unconstitutional, and all have child labor laws — in Iowa the women got a law through the last Legislature and it went into effect July 1.

In Illinois, which stands third in manufactures among the states, the women have been both active and successful. The Illinois child labor law, which they were largely instrumental in securing, is generally regarded by humanitarians as the model law of its kind in the United States. It is also admirably enforced, there being nineteen factory inspectors, of whom six are women. The decrease in ten years is remarkable. In 1895 there was one child employed for every twenty-one adults; last year the propor-

tion was one to sixty-five. Last year there were 1,001 convictions in prosecutions for violations of the factory laws. Naturally there has been a large increase in the school attendance. The club women disposed of a bugbear when they promised scholarships to the children of dependent widows and in conjunction with the Consumers' League carried on investigations that showed this class to be very small, only eight being found in Chicago in two years. The Illinois women have also been largely instrumental in promoting measures that have resulted in a home for delinquent boys, a home for juvenile female offenders, classes for the deaf, and parental schools.

Indiana club women have recently secured an amendment to their child labor law prohibiting more than eight hours a day for children under 14 who are allowed to work in certain circumstances. They are working persistently for several other amendments. They have secured the passage of an anti-cigarette law. Michigan has a pretty good child labor law, which is generally enforced. There are two women factory inspectors. The women have secured women physicians in state institutions for women and children. In Missouri manufactures are increasing and the child labor law is being found to be unsatisfactory in several particulars. The women are working to remove conflicts between the factory laws and the compulsory education law; they also want stricter enforcement. Ohio is working in the direction of amending its child labor law by shortening the hours of labor. The women have lately secured legislation in behalf of the girls' industrial school and are making the introduction of modern methods in that institution an issue of the club work in the state.

Two bills that the club women of Illinois succeeded in getting through the last Legislature will materially increase the protection which the law is able to give to female children. One bill, presented by the Protective Agency for Women and Children, an offshoot of the Chicago Woman's club, made crimes of indecent offenses against children. To the credit of the Legislature it may be said that not a dissenting voice was raised. The other bill, presented in the name of the federated club women of the state, amended the existing statute by raising the age of consent from 14 years to 18. The course of this bill through the Legislature is worth a more extended review than can be given it here, inas-

much as it affords a good illustration of the difficulties met by women when they undertake to create new legislation that directly affects dominant man. The age of consent in Illinois had been 14 years since 1887. At every meeting of the Legislature since that year an amendment raising the age had been presented and had been smothered in committee. This bill narrowly escaped a like fate. It was introduced in the Senate and the Senators were practically unanimous in their promises to vote for it; of course, their mental reservation was "if it ever gets out of committee." The women in charge of the bill were allowed to plead their cause. Two features of the meeting were that many members of the committee who had promised support were "unavoidably absent," and that a lawyer from Chicago, who was not required to disclose the interests he represented, was allowed to make an elaborate attack on the proposed amendment. It quickly became evident that the committee would not favorably consider the raise to 18 years. On a compromise at 16 the result hung in doubt until the friendly chairman — Senator Juul, who introduced the bill — decided a tie vote on the motion to report the bill. Once before the Senate, the Senators stood by their promises and the bill was quickly passed unanimously. In the House the bill met with a reception far from friendly. The committee refused to hear the women in charge of the bill, and the program was silence and secrecy. The House committee, however, did not dare to kill the bill, and contented itself with adding several minor amendments apparently intended to afford loopholes of escape to offenders. When the amended bill was returned to the Senate the women, believing the amendments to be innocuous and regarding the raising of the age by two years as a substantial victory, requested that it be passed. The Senate vote was unanimous.

The amendment has now been in force for more than a year. It has been a great aid to all the organizations interested in protecting young girls and convictions have been frequent. Here is a remarkable case in point. A habitual offender against young girls, who aimed to keep out of the clutches of the law, misbehaved with five girls, two of whom were over 14 and under 16 and three under 14. He was prosecuted under both of the new laws — under the age of consent law as to two of the girls and under the crimes against children law as to the three. He was

sent to the penitentiary for a long term. His mistake consisted in his ignorance of the action of the Legislature; under the old conditions he would have escaped without punishment. In this connection it may be hazarded that ignorance in certain quarters of the introduction of the age of consent bill in the Legislature was its salvation. At any rate, so general was this ignorance that prosecutions continued in the police courts under the old style for some time after the amended law had gone into effect. The club women were actually obliged to print both laws and post them in police stations and police courts.

In this connection it should be stated that the very first legislation undertaken by the Iowa State federation was in 1894, when it petitioned the Legislature to raise the age of consent in that state from 15 to 18 years; the age was raised to 16. The Indiana federation has put itself on record that it stands for the raising of the age of consent in Indiana from 14 to 18.

The middle West club women have educated themselves in art, and have also made a brave effort to educate the coming generation. The traveling art collection and the art library have been a valuable agency in their own education. The art committee of the Illinois federation sent out four traveling art collections about eight years ago, and this is believed to be the first trial of the system. The scope of this system has been greatly enlarged. For example, Illinois, which may be taken as a typical state, has sent out a fine loan collection of American pottery and a loan collection of etchings and paintings; also three art reference libraries, the gift of the Arche club. Each art program at the annual federation meeting is an illustration of the course of study recommended by the committee, and for four years an arts and crafts exhibition has been held in connection with this meeting. In the direction of educating the school children the activities have been varied. The Indiana motto in the education of the young is "At least one good picture in every schoolroom in Indiana." The Ohio federation is pledged to promote art as a regular part of the state educational system. Iowa, which reports forty clubs devoting the entire club year to the study of art, gives art exhibitions for the benefit of the schools, and buys pictures for schoolrooms. The Chicago Woman's club raised an endowment fund



of \$1,500 for the Art institute for the benefit of girl graduates of the city high schools.

Civic improvement has been a popular form of activity among the clubs and every sort of public housecleaning has been undertaken in every kind of community from the country town to the big city. The club women have, among other things, cared for cemeteries, removed garbage, planted trees and shrubs and flowers, cleaned and sprinkled streets, distributed seeds, improved vacant lots, abated public nuisances, established and maintained parks and playgrounds, induced railway officials to beautify station grounds, and founded hospitals. If civic beauty is a tangible asset, the club women have added a great sum in the aggregate to the wealth of the community. In addition to this expenditure of time and effort, the total of their contributions in actual money to movements for civic improvement in the middle West in the last ten years runs into the millions.

Nor have the clubs confined their efforts to the physical community. They have attacked objectionable measures and championed good ones. Everywhere they have stirred lax and negligent municipal and state administrations to activity. Everywhere they have co-operated in important movements. The club women of Chicago, for example, were an important factor in the recent movement in that city that raised the saloon license fee to \$1,000 and thus gave the police department 1,000 more men, and will ultimately result in limiting the number of licenses to one for each 500 of population. In several of the large cities of the middle West are individual clubs of such large and influential membership, of such manifold public activity, of such fruitfulness in admirable offshoots that they may be truly termed great civic institutions. The temptation to set forth in detail the record of these civic institutions in the last decade is strong; they deserve well of the nation.

Civil service reform became a part of the club work of the middle West four years ago. The club women took it up in the belief that the permanence of many of the results they were achieving could not be assured except upon the basis of civil service laws embodying the merit system. They have, therefore, begun the work of educating the younger generation to an appreciation of its importance. They have also been making considerable in-

vestigation into the conditions in county and state institutions where civil service does not obtain, and have done a good deal of tentative work that will count later. The Indiana federation is actively working for a law for civil service in county and state institutions. The Missouri women expect to present a bill to the next Legislature. The Illinois women were largely instrumental in the passing of a law for civil service in state institutions. In general it may be said that there is an appreciable advance all along the line; extensions of civil service are frequent and violations of its spirit invariably evoke strong protest from the public.

Forestry is another comparatively new department of middle West club activity, at least as to the scientific phase of the question. Arboriculture and tree planting for decorative purposes, however, have long been a favorite work, and the club women have been largely instrumental in bringing about the general observance of Arbor day. As to scientific forestry for economic reasons, the interest varies in the several states. Iowa has a small amount of forest land and has shown little interest. Missouri has no law and does not regard forestry as a pressing question. The other four states, however, have ceased to regard forestry as merely "an academic question, impossible of commercial application." The Illinois club women introduced several forestry bills in the last Legislature without success, and will probably try again in 1907. Ohio has little forest left and can have no reserves until it creates them; the work in that state is along the line of wood lot tree planting. The Indiana club women are very much interested and are working for extension of the state forest reserve and increased appropriation for experimental work. Michigan, which has suffered shamefully at the hand of the lumberman, has a forestry commission and a large forest reserve; the club women are co-operating to bring about conditions that will make reforestation possible.

The traveling library has been a tremendous educational agency in the middle West. It was primarily intended for the benefit of the club women themselves, but its influence has been far reaching. Out of the movement have come state library commissions, permanent libraries of various kinds, and state appropriations. To the clubs is due at least the larger part of the credit for this wonderful growth. The Iowa women have been very active; the state library commission controls 12,000 volumes in trav-

eling libraries, of which 6,000 volumes are divided into miscellaneous libraries of fifty each, the remainder forming reference libraries. The state appropriates \$6,000 annually. The clubs have established eighty-one free public libraries and maintained many of them. In Mount Pleasant, for instance, the women, after supporting a free library for twenty-five years, have secured a tax and have turned over their 7,000 volumes to the city. Indiana has also accomplished much. Among other things the women secured the passage of a library bill in 1901 under which forty towns were enabled to accept Carnegie libraries. In Michigan the clubs co-operate with the commission; there are sixty traveling libraries and the state makes a liberal annual appropriation. In Ohio the women succeeded in 1897, after two years' work, in getting an appropriation of \$8,000 for the circulating of the state library at Columbus through the state; there are now 925 cases of from twenty-five to seventy-five volumes each in circulation. Missouri, which has forty traveling libraries, attempted to get a library commission bill through the last Legislature and failed. The disappointing failure of Illinois with its 270 libraries has been told.

This fragmentary and prosaic recital does scant justice to the record of the club movement in the middle West in the last decade, and of course it merely scratches the surface of the problems that confront the club women. In view of the facts here set forth there is no need of comment; they speak for themselves.

## THE EFFECT OF CLUB WORK IN THE SOUTH

By MRS. A. O. GRANGER, Cartersville, Georgia.

In considering our subject we must be careful to remember that club work as now organized and federated is but a child. The State Federations throughout the South vary in age from four to twelve years.

Fifteen years ago the only clubs in existence among the women of the South were those formed for recreation, or for study among congenial friends or neighbors.

Women met then, as many of them do still, to study a favorite author and discuss his shades of meaning, without a thought of any responsibility beyond the home, church, and circle of friends. Warmhearted, and generous by nature, cases of need brought to their individual knowledge were kindly cared for, but no women's clubs had as yet assumed any part in the work of properly systematized social improvement.

There was no sudden rush of awakening, but the increase of railroad facilities and the consequent travel, combined with the wider dissemination of the daily paper, brought the impulse of the outside world even into remote villages. The coming of the telephone, and the rural free delivery of mail have not taken women away from their homes but have brought the wide world into close touch with the life of the family.

Women of intellectual keenness in the South could not be left out of the awakening of the women of the whole country to a realization of the responsibility which they properly had in the condition of their fellow-women and of the children.

Virginia, which might naturally have been expected to lead off in this work, is the only Southern State without a Federation of Women's Clubs, but individual clubs in that State, doing excellent work are undoubtedly the forerunners of a strong federation.

By a requirement of its constitution concerning the joining any

other organization, the Alabama Federation of Women's Clubs has not yet become a member of the General Federation, but it works along similar lines with the other federations and is considered one with them.

In the remaining twelve federations in the South, including those in Oklahoma and Indian Territory there are six hundred and forty-seven individual clubs with an estimated membership of over twenty-five thousand women, and this number is constantly increasing.

It would be useless to enumerate the lines of work in each federation, since they are almost identical in purpose, with slight differences in name, and vary but little from those of the General Federation.

Each Federation has brought into its work the new committees which seemed of greatest value for its Clubs.

The Art work consisted in the first place of studying of the growth of art and its different periods and forms of development. Many clubs have done excellent study-work before reaching the second stage of distributing through the schools prints of the world's greatest masterpieces, often with a description or a poem accompanying the picture for which it was written.

The Texas Federation "supports a Travelling Art Gallery, which each year, exhibits to club towns subscribing, a different school of art. This year the exhibition is of French masters. During the five months' circuit seventy-two clubs were visited, and over twenty-two thousand children given an opportunity of seeing artistic works and hearing them explained by a capable conductress who accompanies the collection."

In many instances the pictures sent to schools are an aid to nature study, being especially prepared for school use. These represent birds, beasts, fishes, plants and rocks and being printed in the natural colours are a great delight to the children in the public schools. The nature pictures do not pass from place to place but are a gift to the school receiving them and highly appreciated by the children.

In like manner the clubs devoted to the study of literature have been important factors in the spread of good literature in three ways, through the "traveling libraries;" to villages and isolated schools to the smaller towns in the establishment of free

libraries; and in the large towns by hearty co-operation with the Carnegie or any other city library. The traveling libraries go about among the country schools and villages, and are in charge of the teachers receiving them from the clubs. Tennessee has over one hundred traveling libraries and is constantly increasing the number. Texas has sixty-five, and all of the other states are doing similar work. Arkansas has only recently undertaken library work but has one dozen libraries now traveling and is raising funds for a "Reciprocity Library." The latter corresponds with what in Georgia is called its Federation Library and consists of books of reference upon the subjects embraced by the federation committees — the different sections of this library go for a season to the club requesting the books as an aid to study. In Georgia a number of clubs have traveling libraries varying in number but with a total in the Federation approximating one hundred volumes. South Carolina also has one hundred libraries, while Kentucky reports eighty-four. The popularity of these books, the eagerness of their welcome where there is no other library is shown from the fact that the ones longest in circulation through the territory have become quite dilapidated, and several federations report that the traveling library committees need funds to replenish the sections even more than to fit out new libraries! In Georgia the valuable library and gardening work along the route of the Seaboard Air-Line R. R. was founded by and is still in charge of one of the charter members of the Georgia Federation.

Naturally from this library work there has sprung a desire to possess buildings properly equipped for this branch of the work as well as for many other uses which constantly arise for a gathering place. Consequently, each year sees an addition to the number of club houses where the meetings are held, the books of the circulating library kept for distribution, and whence the traveling libraries may start upon their journeys. These buildings are unpretentious, but truly artistic because well-adapted for the required uses and sufficiently ornamental to arouse the pride of all citizens in them. The writer knows one which is a beautiful log cabin and cost but six hundred dollars, yet it is the pride of the little town and a delight to passing travelers.

The club women of the South are also working for the improvement of our public schools, especially those in the rural dis-

tricts. Many scholarships in Normal Schools and Universities have been obtained by the club members and filled by some one whom they deemed worthy to be prepared as a thoroughly trained teacher. This step has been taken because women saw the need of better training for the teachers both for the sake of the pupils and that there might be an equivalent given for the better salaries which club women are striving to bring about for the country teachers who are generally far too poorly paid.

Kindergartens have become a part of woman's work in some of the larger towns as well as throughout the states and are becoming a more important part of the school system.

The Texas Federation has within the last two years put the kindergarten work among the standing committees. "Pioneer work is over with us and a State Kindergarten Association, two training schools, sixty kindergartens, and industrial and settlement work, besides the submitting of a bill to the legislature asking that this form of education be made a part of the public school system, have been the arduous labours of this untiring committee. Only one city however, El Paso, has succeeded in incorporating the kindergarten with the public schools."

The addition of manual training and Nature study to the curriculum of the rural schools is producing a revolution in the feeling of the children toward the schools. This, where properly carried out, does not increase the burden of studies for the children — instead, there is a perceptible gain in the mental alertness of a pupil whose hand also is allowed to learn new uses, and whose whole outlook on life is broadened by this addition.

Basketry, sewing and weaving have mingled with them gay threads of history and geography which will shine out more and more through the passing years, never to be forgotten. The whole wide world comes right into the schoolroom when the children realize that the raphia in their fingers came from Madagascar, and that it might have come from Borneo; those far away islands are nearby when one of the children has traced upon a globe the route from their school-house to the palm groves where the huge leaves grow from whose stems the fibre is stripped. In cooking, the children learn the relative values of foods as well as their preparation. It was while eating vegetable soup made by a lad of twelve, that the guests of one school were told that the corn from "out

West" contained an excess of fat-producing material while that raised in Georgia was more muscle-producing.

Work in Music is carried on very successfully in some of the Southern Federations—club women not only give their own attention to the best of music, but by means of scholarships obtained from those gifted in teaching, and by loans of music to the pupils, pass on the training to others.

In close connection with the school work is that of Household Economics—the department in which our club women study the very latest phases of the duties in and around our homes which are so vital to us and our children. The pure-food laws are just as important for the South as for any other part of the country and any bills of that nature receive the influence of the club women.

The work of Civic Improvement is one by which the women are waking the people of the South to the commercial as well as the artistic value of beauty in our towns, and the importance of perfect sanitation being the aim of every place. School Gardens and procuring parks for towns also come within the duties of this committee and these states are dotted with parks and gardens which show how effective this work has been.

Civil Service Reform is a subject which is still quite new to most of the Southern club women, as the committees on that subject have only been formed within the last two years—but already the women appreciate the subject and are doing good work. They are trying to create an enlightened public opinion which shall place the Civil Service of our country upon an equitable, honorable basis. None of the women in our country are better fitted to realize the value of the merit system than the women of the South, and it is hoped that they will wield a powerful influence in this direction. Not only from the ordinary view-point can woman see this subject, but also from her desire to place the Civil Service upon the same level of public esteem as the branches that work in war. The Army and the Navy have leaders who have been educated and maintained at the public expense; they give us protection from foreign foes, but how important it is that the men who preserve domestic peace, who guard our homes, and cities, and counties, shall also be men beyond reproach; that they shall be chosen for their fitness and then shall be sure of their retention in office "for life or good behaviour"; men who cannot be bought



by the powers of evil, and who shall be free from all fear lest fulfilling their duty may cost them their position!

The club women who used to study Shakespeare have been looking around them upon life's stage. They are finding through their study of civic conditions that an enormous number of life's players are performing their parts under adverse circumstances. Seeing this the club women of the South have joined their sisters all over the Union in demanding improvement in the industrial conditions of women and the abolition of Child Labor. In every state except Georgia\* there is now protection for the little ones; to at least a slight extent, from the greed of unrighteous employers and the laziness of loafing fathers.

The enforcement of the existing Child Labor laws, and their improvement as soon as possible, and the passage of one in Georgia — also the passage of a Compulsory Education law, as a great preventive of Child Labor are two of the most momentous subjects in the work of the club women of the South. In spite of the laws the number of children who are working by day and by night in the South is increasing. Observation shows that even these few years of manufacturing development of the South have brought deterioration to many of the white children. The wife of the manager of a mill said to the superintendent that a certain small girl at work did not look as if she were twelve years old. "Yes — she's fifteen, I know, for she has worked for me for years in another town!" thus himself proving the dwarfing effect of cotton mill work upon young children. Club women are doing their best in this work for the children — but is it not all for them? The public lectures given in the public schools of New Orleans, by a club woman, were a great aid in preventing the further spread of the yellow fever because it enabled the parents and children to understand the necessity for quarantine, and for the cleansing of the yards and streets. Perhaps when the parents of mill-children learn that the government is determined to protect their children from working while infants, and why they forbid it, they too will acquire a new dignity and keep the law.

Says a prominent official in the North — "While men have been quarreling over the money question and the tariff, the women have

\* At time of writing this was true. At proofreading, a very excellent bill has been passed by the Legislature of Georgia.

been safeguarding humanity"—and they have done it as club women without regard to other affiliations—it is the greatest force for making us all one, without regard to creed or politics—and it is equally true of the work in the South.

This is shown by the work done for the proper treatment of minors who have broken the law. The efforts of the club women of Atlanta, Georgia were principally responsible for the establishment of a reformatory in their county. Two years later, aroused by the visit of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, they were influential in creating the public opinion which demanded a Juvenile Court which is now in successful operation, saving children from contact with criminals in the stockade and chain-gang, and preparing them for useful citizenship. A lad who had formerly been very troublesome was asked by his mother, "What makes you so good now that you are on probation?" The quick reply was, "I have to be or the Judge would lose his job!" That is the secret of the work for the children having Judges, and probation officers of tact, who are filled with real love for children and a desire to save them. In Texas the women are working to procure state legislation installing the Juvenile Courts. In the city of Dallas the club women themselves raised the money for the payment of a police matron in order to show the civic authorities the value of having such protection for the women and girls who are under arrest.

The interest in these subjects is deepening in all our federations and the work done is slowly increasing in effectiveness.

The work of the "Arts and Crafts" committees throughout the south has developed the fact that there are in farm homes, sometimes far from towns, women of marked ability in certain lines of handiwork. In Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia many of the women in the mountains are still able to do the intricate weaving of days long-gone-by, and they are greatly pleased to find appreciation of their work and a market for it. "Drawn-work" too is done equal to the best sent from Mexico and sold to or through club women, while the "shuck hats" are not only artistically beautiful by being made in graceful shapes, but of home-grown materials.

"Social Settlement" work is found in New Orleans and is wonderfully successful there, but the only Southern Federation

which has a Social Settlement committee is Tennessee. Its work in Walker's Valley is not only useful in itself but has by its value secured the founding of a similar settlement in the Tennessee mountains under the care of the Federation of Massachusetts. That fact brings us to one of the most beautiful effects of club work — namely, the unity of feeling with the women of one whole country. Nominally divided by sectional lines they know none such. Massachusetts has her foster-child in Tennessee, and another in Georgia where her Federation provides the Industrial Training in the Model School at Cass Station which is appropriately called "The Massachusetts-Georgia Model School."

The description of this work is almost a portrayal of its effect. We can claim, without fear of contradiction, that no Southern club woman has ever expressed her regret at having "wasted four hours at a meeting of the State Federation" as a popular author has quoted an Eastern friend. The club to which a Southern woman belongs may be purely literary, or devote itself to travel-study, but she has nevertheless felt the influence of the work of her Federation. The children in the little country schools of whom she knew nothing before, have now become of deep interest to her through the work of her State Federation.

There was no manual training in the country schools of Georgia, and no emphasis laid upon it in any school in the state until two scholarships had been presented to the Georgia Federation by great Northern training schools. When the diplomas for domestic science and manual training had been earned, the faithful work done by the two young ladies thus fitted, Miss Emily Wilburn and Miss Isabel Thursby, proved a valuable object lesson to the educational authorities of the state. The two teachers now in charge of the Massachusetts-Georgia Model School were trained in the State Normal School at Athens. The day of complete training for eye and head and hand and heart has come to the children of Georgia through its Federation of Women's Clubs. Surely a worthy effect of club work. Similar work in all of the Southern states has had an effect upon the children, but perhaps even more upon the women. Without neglecting their homes, without becoming mannish or losing one charm of their womanhood, the club women of the South have become broadened and their work has made them a recognized force wherever they dwell. Their as-

sistance is sought for every movement which may be helpful to the state or country and they no longer shrink from expressing themselves upon the subjects vital to society.

Texas stands for us all when "The Lone Star Federation asserts that it stands for the highest and truest type of womanhood — that which lends her voice as well as her hand."

Hospitals, almshouses — or "county-farms" and all public institutions for the unfortunate are coming more quickly than supposed into their proper status of public trusts, and largely because of the interest of the women. There is a constant increase in the demands made upon the women's clubs by those most interested in civic progress, and the help given to the clubs by the authorities of the towns is an equal proof of the appreciation of their work.

Women's clubs in the South have brought the women into partnership with their husbands and brothers in the civic responsibility of caring for the unfortunate, and of raising the standard of thought and action about all other "national housekeeping" problems.

As the ranks of church workers contain many club women, those associations are brought more closely into touch with the life outside of their immediate line of work, and in the South the reciprocal interest is very great. There certainly are times when the decision must be made as to which is the more important work of the moment but the conscientious club woman makes her decision calmly for club work is also God's work for home — for our land, for all who need us.

## THE WORK OF THE WOMEN'S CLUBS IN CALIFORNIA

BY DOROTHEA MOORE

The earliest activities of the women of the Pacific coast—especially in San Francisco, its largest centre—were begun in an organization called the California Club of California. This was organized on the same general lines as the Chicago Woman's Club and had it for model and inspiration.

The first meeting was held in San Francisco at the house of Mrs. Lovell White about ten years ago. At that meeting a few women were present and the club had neither means nor position—nothing in fact but good intentions. It was organized purely for broad civic work and has been continued on these lines until today when it has over five hundred members, a fine club house and an enviable position among the recognized civic forces of the state.

So much space is given to it not for personal reasons but because it was the pioneer club and has set the standard for the many which have followed it.

A list of its activities would make an article in itself, as it has actively concerned itself in every movement of a rapidly growing city as well as in legislative movements for the entire state.

Its first modest action was the holding of a flower market in the central public square with music, etc. This was successful and led to a movement for a public playground. Such a playground was opened and maintained by it until its success induced the city to take it over and to equip others. The first Arts and Crafts Exhibit was held under its auspices and here for the first time the Club had civic recognition, receiving money from the State Board of Trade for its initial expenses and returning the same at the close of a successful exhibit. From this time on The Merchants' Association recognized the Club in all public movements, and it had entire command of the press. School rooms were decorated, traveling libraries and portfolios were sent to towns and schools through

the state, music was provided for the parks and numerous minor civic matters kept going in the city. A larger activity was then begun in the State. Bills for the protection of bird life and for the protection of the forests were passed, women physicians were placed in the Insane Asylums and Homes for the Feeble Minded and the greater part of the work for a Juvenile Court and better Child Labor Laws was done with the aid of the State Federation, now formed for six years, and having eleven thousand members.

Some three years ago an Out Door Art League was formed, affiliated with the national society of that name. This has also done splendid special work for forestry and the Big Trees bill in Washington.

This organization has planted school yards, cleaned up vacant yards, had 200 unsightly poles removed from the city streets, secured the care and cleaning of the ocean front, helped actively in the famous fight for the retention of the street flower markets, now fully secured by city ordinance, secured many thousand votes for the purchase and preservation of Telegraph Hill, a noted historic spot, threatened by destruction from a greedy corporation—secured over one million names for the petition to President concerning the preservation of the Calaveras Big Tree Grove, secured \$5,000 to park and plant the grounds and street about the Mission Dolores and at present is planting vines and having trees planted on the barren slopes belonging to the Federal Government of Yerba Buena Island.

The Out Door Art League—in the interest of union and strength, recently joined its membership to that of the California Club and together the Clubs are carrying on civic work. A bill is now before the national Congress trying to secure for California the five percent for the sale of school lands which other states have enjoyed.\* The clubs are working also for parental schools, the prevention of tuberculosis, including a state sanatorium; against an overhead trolley system for San Francisco, etc., etc.

Three clubs in the Alameda district own club-houses, four are building; nearly all the others are laying by funds to that end.

The altruistic work of these clubs has been to assist in securing women physicians in insane asylums and homes for feeble minded throughout the state; to donate money to the Club House

\* At time of proofreading this bill had passed Congress.

Loan Fund; to help pay the probation officer in the county; to sign petitions for forest protection; to send out circulating libraries. One has given a well-selected library to an Indian school, one supports a hospital bed, several clubs are doing extensive tree-planting and interesting themselves in other lines of city improvement. One young, ambitious, and successful club has secured a high school for its town, and established kitchen gardens in vacant lots. One club has done wonderful work through its sewing schools, cooking schools, and summer schools,—all conducted in the club house. Another has provided a probation officer for adults and matrons for women in jails and prisons.

In the San Joaquin Valley District hundreds of trees have been set out along the highways.

The southern portion of the State, especially in Los Angeles, had done much for child labor legislation and most of all for the Consumers' League movement. The little club of Vallejo owned and managed a fire engine until the town authorities got ashamed and got one of their own.

The women of Los Angeles as organized did the important work of educating public opinion so strongly in the election of a non-partizan school board as to make the election secure.

Juvenile court workers in Los Angeles County are rejoicing over the passage of the bill which provides for the payment by the county of the salaries of two probation officers. This brings relief to the club women who have been supporting this object, and civic workers report most satisfactory progress. Plans are in formation to secure a field secretary whose duty shall be to obtain homes for such children as are deemed in need of same. Also it is purposed to build a detention home.

The Outdoor Art Section of the Civic Federation has obtained, through the efforts of its chairman, a public playground, 300 feet square, for the children of Los Angeles, equipped it with an artistic house for the superintendent, a very complete outdoor gymnasium, merry-go-rounds, swings, teeter-boards, tennis and hand-ball courts and a baseball diamond. Ground for a second playground has been secured. The Outdoor Art Section has also inaugurated a garden contest, plants, seeds and vines being given out from five centers to over 1,000 children. Prizes aggregating \$150.00 have been offered for the best gardens of various sizes.

The special district civic work this year will be the publication of a pamphlet containing the California Laws for Women and Children. Experienced lawyers will edit this volume and it is hoped to place a copy in the hands of at least every club woman in the district.

The formation of the new state Art Committee has stimulated interest along art lines. Under the leadership of the Ruskin Art Club, the club women of Los Angeles have secured a new organization whereby the women of the Southwest will build a permanent art gallery in Los Angeles or some site in Southern California to be determined upon later. This is the successful result of the earnest and faithful efforts so long put forth by the Ruskin Art Club toward the establishment of an institution wide-spreading in its influence for broadened culture.

Many clubs are occupying their own club houses, notably the Contemporary Club of Redlands, the La Jolla Woman's Club, the Wednesday and San Diego Clubs of San Diego, the Saturday Afternoon Club of Monrovia, The Ebell of Long Beach, the Shakespeare Club of Pasadena, and the Ebell of Los Angeles. The last mentioned has been handled so fortunately and wisely that its Building Association has just declared a twenty-five per cent dividend to stockholders.

The California Federation has contributed \$1,000.00 to the Club House Loan Fund at Berkeley. This amount has been used to furnish and equip a Club House for women students at the State University. When the returns reach one thousand dollars, another house is furnished, and thus a perpetual fund is established. One club, through its interest in our Club House Loan Fund, has decided to investigate the subject, "The housing of women students at all of our state universities."

In every town and city the clubs have now an acknowledged position for which they no longer need to fight and which they must now merely keep fresh and confident with ever more and wiser effort.

The west is an easy field—the men are willing partners and have always been generous and kindly advisers and aids.

As the management of legislation comes to be better understood more legislation will be attempted and proposed in a way to win success. Civil service in the whole state is what ought to be the great next thing, for it is the basis of all the best civic life.



## WORKINGWOMEN AND THE LAWS: A RECORD OF NEGLECT

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JOSEPHINE C. GOLDMARK  
National Consumers' League.

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An attempt to show in tabular form how the various states have protected by law the rapidly growing body of working women in this country, illustrates the insufficiency and meagreness of such laws.

Necessarily this compilation omits all reference to statutes gradually secured for the health and safety of working men, and which working women *ipso facto* share. These laws provide for sanitation, ventilation and lighting, for fire-escapes and a noon hour, in some states for the guarding of dangerous machinery, for forced ventilation, payment of wages, reporting of accidents, and other similar measures.

The Census of 1900 showed that, during the preceding decade, young workingwomen increased at a more rapid rate than any other class of workers; that one-half of the 5,000,000 wage-earning women were girls under the age of 25 years; that while the largest percentage of workingmen were adults in the prime of strength between 25 and 34 years of age, the largest percentage of working "women" were between 16 and 21 years of age. No plea can show more clearly than this fact, the urgent need of special legislation in their behalf — young, inexperienced and helpless themselves — to improve their conditions of labor.

The two most important elements in the employment of women with which legislation deals are, 1 Nightwork, 2 The length of the working day.

### *Nightwork*

The dangers of nightwork are twofold, physical and moral. In the deplorable absence of medical records, the effect of occupation, nightwork and overtime upon health cannot be proved by

statistics. But the physical injury is attested by all physicians whose practice brings them into contact with working girls. Anæmia, nervous exhaustion and general susceptibility to disease are not difficult to trace to unrepaired loss of sleep due to night labor. Moreover, ill-health among working girls is more wide spread than is known to physicians and clinics, as the ignorance and fear of these workers keep them from seeking medical assistance as long as possible. The direct effect of nightwork on health may be observed in one occupation where such work is as unavoidable as it is well-arranged, that is hospital nursing. Even in hospitals where night duty is carefully regulated — a period of three months being considered excessive — and where night nurses are required to rest and sleep during the daytime, their standard of health is distinctly below that of the day nurses. Nervous fatigue and susceptibility to disease are admittedly greater. How then can it be otherwise in employments for instance such as binderies, laundries and textile mills, where nightwork is long continued for women whose home conditions make adequate rest by day impossible? The lowered vitality or chronic ill-health which results is a sinister endowment, particularly for the large number of girls who marry after a few years of work.

The *moral* dangers of nightwork are so obvious that they need only be mentioned: the danger of the streets at night, going to and from work; association with all kinds of men employees at late night hours; the difficulty for women who are away from their families, of living at respectable places and entering at night hours; the peril of the midnight recess in establishments that run all night long.

Such being in brief, some physical and moral detriments of nightwork, what has been done by legislation to protect women and young girls?

Only four of the 52 states and territories specifically forbid the employment of women at night. A fifth state (Ohio) prohibits nightwork of girls under 18 years. New Jersey prohibits nightwork in bakeries for girls under 18 years.

#### *Work at Night Prohibited*

Between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., in Indiana, for all women in manufacture.

Between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., in Massachusetts, for all women in manufacture.

Between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., in Nebraska, for all women in manufacture and commerce.

Between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m., in New York for all women in manufacture.

Between 10 p. m. and 7 a. m., in New York, for women under 21 years in commerce.

Between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m., in Ohio, for girls under 18 years at any gainful occupation.

Between 7 p. m. and 7 a. m., in New Jersey for girls under 18 years in bakeries.

*Work at Night Not Prohibited*

Alabama	Louisiana	Oregon
Alaska	Maine	Pennsylvania
Arizona	Maryland	Rhode Island
Arkansas	Michigan	South Carolina
California	Minnesota	South Dakota
Colorado	Mississippi	Tennessee
Connecticut	Missouri	Texas
Delaware	Montana	Utah
District of Columbia	Nevada	Vermont
Florida	New Hampshire	Virginia
Georgia	New Jersey (except in bakeries)	Washington
Hawaii	New Mexico	West Virginia
Idaho	North Carolina	Wisconsin
Illinois	North Dakota	Wyoming
Indian Territory	Ohio (except for girls under 18)	
Iowa	Oklahoma	
Kansas		
Kentucky		

*When Childhood Ends*

The principle of protecting *children* from nightwork has so far gained ground, that 20 states have forbidden their employment at night, to specified ages. But childhood ends early according to the statutes. In South Carolina, for instance, childhood ends upon the 12th birthday and after that date little girls may

legally be employed every night, from sunset to sunrise, for the rest of their lives, being no longer children in the eyes of the law. That the 12th birthday is actually the time when childhood ends, and that thereafter a little girl is a woman fit to work 12 hours at night, few people would directly affirm. Childhood, taken as the period of physical development, does not end upon the 12th birthday, nor yet upon the 14th. The pressure of industry tends to set as low as possible, in the statutes, the age when childhood nominally ends, in order to make available as early as may be the cheap labor of children at night. This is especially true in states whose industries call for the labor of children, and where public opinion against night work is not yet outspoken. South Carolina protects children at night only to the 12th birthday; Alabama to the 13th; Arkansas, Texas and Virginia to the 14th. Even enlightened Massachusetts still fails to protect from nightwork children over 14 years in certain employments. Other states forbid nightwork in *all* gainful occupations to the 16th birthday, and it is legitimate to presume that this age limit will soon be accepted for all legislation on the work and education of children. But the glaring need of protecting the very young should not be allowed to conceal the no less poignant, if less well recognized need of such legislation for girls *over* 16 years.

#### *Legislation On Nightwork Abroad*

In America, then, but four states have laws prohibiting nightwork for women, and such legislation is viewed with general hostility by employers. This fact brings into greater prominence the movement abroad for a total and worldwide prohibition of nightwork for women in industrial establishments. In May, 1905, there met at Berne, Switzerland, representatives of most of the civilized governments, except the United States and Japan, to draw up a definite international agreement prohibiting nightwork for women and establishing a 12-hour period of rest at night. This meeting was called by the Swiss government at the request of the International Association for Labor Legislation, and was composed of representatives sent by the following countries, viz.: Germany, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Great Britain, Italy, Norway, Holland, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland. Discussion covered the physical and moral need of

such an agreement for the preservation of the race, and the greater efficiency of workingwomen; the industries to be included; the necessary exemptions to be made; the effect on competition for world markets, etc. It was decided to include in the projected agreement all industrial establishments employing more than 10 persons. It was decided further that a specified period of at least 11 consecutive hours for rest at night be provided, beginning not later than 10 p. m. and closing not earlier than 5 a. m. An interval of 3 to 10 years (according to the state of the industries affected) is to be allowed before the international agreement goes into effect; the exemptions such as industries using materials liable to spoil, or "season-trades," are strictly defined; the agreement is to be ratified by the participating governments by December, 1907.

The lasting value of this Conference is explained by the Bulletin of the New York State Department of Labor (Dec. 1905); "As the conference came to a definite agreement on each question, its recommendations are likely to have great influence and may lead to the arrangement of international treaties to carry out the purpose of the resolutions. The way for such treaties has been paved by the Franco-Italian treaty of April 15, 1904, whereby Italy agreed to reduce the hours of labor in manufactories and to institute an effective system of factory inspection, while France renounced the unequal treatment of Italian workmen under the French system of accidental insurance and assured better protection to Italian children in France. 'The treaty,' says Secretary Bauer, 'was negotiated by two eminent members of our Association, Messrs. Fontaine and Luzzatti—and was the direct outcome of the work of the Association, the framers having begun negotiations at the Cologne meeting in 1902.'"

#### *American Legislation*

In contrast to this epoch making movement, a continued policy of indifference to the subject in this country seems impossible. Yet the health and industrial efficiency of workingwomen has in most states been subordinated to political and legal considerations invoked by interested employers. It is true that as long ago as 1876 the Massachusetts court upheld the law of that state, forbidding employment of women between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. But

a few years ago the admirable New Jersey law which protected women and minors in manufacture from nightwork and established a 55-hour week, was repealed. The excellent New York provision forbidding employment of all women and minors at night in factories, is, at the date of writing, attacked in the courts on the ground of constitutionality. A similar law was declared unconstitutional in Illinois in 1895, as imposing unwarranted restrictions upon the right to contract.

After that decision, women of all ages were for several years worked in Chicago during the whole night, or until any hour of the morning, in an establishment whose employees in New York City were dismissed at the legal closing hour, 10 o'clock.

If now the New York law is declared unconstitutional, the highest court of that state will again place the barren right of the individual to contract even for the hurt of herself and the community, above the beneficent power of the state to enact a far reaching health law. The Berne Conference has shown how vital to workingwomen is such a law in the eyes of civilized Europe. Is it credible that American industries are *obliged* to use up the lives of workingwomen while foreign competitors can provide this essential of health — an 11-hour night for sleep, not work? In a noble decision upholding the constitutionality of a law restricting hours of labor in mines, the Supreme Court of the United States defined (*Re Holden vs. Hardy*) the right of the state to abridge individual right of contract:

“But the fact that both parties are of full age, and competent to contract, does not necessarily deprive the state of the power to interfere, where the parties do not stand upon an equality, or where the public health demands that one party to the contract shall be protected against himself. The state still retains an interest in his welfare, however reckless he may be. The whole is no greater than the sum of all the parts, and when the individual health, safety, and welfare are sacrificed or neglected, the state must suffer.”

Meanwhile it is significant that in all cases affecting the constitutionality of laws restricting hours of labor, the assailants of the law have not been laborers striving for the privilege of nightwork or unrestricted hours, but employers to whose advantage it is for them so to labor. When nightwork for women is

prohibited, employers must replace them with men (who are usually paid "time and a half" or "double time"), or must increase the day force. Either alternative means increase of expense; hence invasion of employees' "rights" are discovered by unscrupulous employers in any law prohibiting unlimited hours. But the "right" to work all day and all night, apparently assuring the individual's liberty, means in practice sheer inability to refuse to work whatever length of time the employer may choose. For refusal means dismissal. As has been well said, the "right" to work unlimited hours amounts to the "right" to lose one's job—a barren privilege!<sup>1</sup> On the other hand when law forbids night-work or unrestricted hours for women, industry ultimately adjusts itself to the requirement. The same specious argument is used—that "rights" are invaded—when laws against child labor are enacted. As the brief in defense of the child labor law recently attacked in California, says:<sup>2</sup> "There has been no cry of oppression, no contention that the rights of any citizen or of any child were invaded thereby, except such contention came from some individual from whom the law was about to exact a penalty for its violation . . . it would be with better grace if the solicitude for the invaded rights of children came from the children themselves, or their parents, or from someone who is not pecuniarily interested in the invalidity of the law under which it is sought to show the rights of children are invaded."

#### *Laws Restricting Hours of Labor*

The enlightened European countries are as far in advance of the United States in fixing by statute the length of the working day, as they are in existing or prospective laws on night work for women.

Yet a limitation of working hours is, like the prohibition of nightwork, conspicuously necessary to preserve the health of workingwomen. The enormous increase of output in manufacture which has been held a national distinction and superiority, means primarily increase in speed, with a corresponding demand

<sup>1</sup> See "Some Ethical Gains Through Legislation," Chap. III, Florence Kelley, and "Some Equivocal Rights of Labor," Geo. W. Alger, *The Atlantic Monthly*, March, 1906.

<sup>2</sup> *Crim. Nos. 1331 and 1332, Supreme Court of California.*

upon the attention and strength of the operator. The nervous strain involved in attending highly speeded modern machines can be compensated only by lessening the daily hours of application to such exacting labor.

In this country only 19 states have laws restricting hours of labor by the day and by the week.

*Work Restricted by the Day and by the Week*

Work Restricted to

10 hours in 24, 54 hours in one week, in California, for minors under 18 years in any place of labor.

10 hours in one day, 55 hours in one week, in Ohio, for girls under 18 years in factories and stores, or any other establishment.

10 hours in 24, 58 hours in one week, in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, for all women in manufacture.

10 hours in 24, 60 hours in one week, for New York, for all women in factories and girls between 16 and 21 years in stores; in Nebraska for all women in factories, stores, hotels and restaurants; in Connecticut, for all women in factories and stores; in Louisiana, Maine and New Hampshire, for all women in factories; in Michigan for all girls under 21 years in stores and factories; in Indiana for girls under 18 years in stores, factories, laundries, bakeries or printing offices; in New Jersey for girls under 18 years in bakeries.

12 hours in 24, 60 hours in one week, in Pennsylvania, for women in all except mine, domestic and farm labor (10 hours in 24, between Dec. 5th and 24th).

Five other states restrict the labor of women to a specified number of hours in the twenty-four, but fail to restrict labor by the week, thus inviting the twofold evil of work by night, and of work every night in the week including Sunday.

*Work Restricted by the Day Only*

Work Restricted to

8 hours in 24, in Colorado, for women in all employments requiring them to stand.



10 hours in 24, in Maryland, for women in cotton and woolen mills ;  
in North Dakota, Virginia and Washington for women  
in all employments.

*No Time Limit*

*Work Restricted Neither by the Day Nor by the Week*

Alabama	Missouri
Alaska	Montana
Arizona	Nevada
Arkansas	New Jersey (except in bakeries)
Delaware	New Mexico
District of Columbia	North Carolina
Florida	Oklahoma
Georgia	Oregon
Hawaii	South Carolina
Idaho	Tennessee
Illinois	Texas
Indian Territory	Utah
Iowa	Vermont
Kansas	West Virginia
Kentucky	Wisconsin
Minnesota	Wyoming
Mississippi	

These laws, unless reinforced by the prohibition of nightwork as in Massachusetts, Indiana, New York and Nebraska, do not limit the working hours to the daytime, and accordingly the 10 hours specified may be 10 hours at night. Indeed the statutes of Oregon and Washington expressly state that women may be employed 10 hours at *any time*, and they have in consequence been employed in Washington for almost 20 consecutive hours in a mill—a period supposedly divided into two days' labor by the convenient line of midnight.

Again, the existing statutes in five of the fourteen states exclude all adult workers from the protection of the law. California, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana and Maine legislate for girls under 18 or 21 years of age, leaving women above these ages entirely unprotected.

But it is on the ground of *sex* no less than of *age* that pro-

tection from overwork is needed. No woman of any age can toil for a 12 or 15 hour day in a laundry, for instance, involving the heaviest physical exertion, without physical injury. No woman should be employed more than 10 hours a day at less taxing employments.

Bésides these general omissions, the existing laws are marred, and some made worthless by the damaging special exceptions they allow. If women are restricted to ten hours labor in one day, *except* when overtime is allowed to make one shorter work day in the week (supposedly a Saturday half-holiday), such an exception is merely a license to evade the law. Without an army of inspectors such as nowhere exists to see whether overtime is fairly compensated by off-time each week, the exception is manifestly impossible of strict enforcement. Eight states destroy the possibility of enforcing their laws by such exceptions:

California, Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, Michigan, New Hampshire, New York and Rhode Island.

#### *Posting the Laws*

Most states prescribe penalties for violation of these laws — either fines ranging from \$10 to \$100 for each offense, or fine and imprisonment. Many states also require that the laws be conspicuously posted in each workroom. This is a most efficient aid to enforcement, when the presence of employees on the premises after the hours posted therein, is *prima facie* evidence of the violation of the law. This method (especially as used in Massachusetts) saves the factory inspectors much time since they need show no other evidence of overtime employment.

#### *Seats*

Essential to the health and well being of women is the usage of sitting while at work, whenever possible. Where the nature of the occupation makes this impracticable for the whole period, much is gained if seats are provided and employees are permitted to use them at intervals, as in the "slack" times of the day for salesclerks and waitresses. Twenty-seven states and the District of Columbia have laws requiring seats for women, but few of them are so drawn or so enforced as to be of real value. The existence of the seats may easily be required, liberty to use them

as easily denied. Statutes should require employers to provide not merely "suitable seats" as most of the laws are worded, but a specified number, such as one to every worker if possible, or one to every three workers. They should be fixed seats with backs, instead of boxes and other makeshifts, permissible under many laws.

*States which Require Seats*

a. In all places of employment:

District of Columbia	Nebraska
Indiana	Pennsylvania
Minnesota	West Virginia
Michigan	

b. In stores and factories:

Alabama (stores only)	New Hampshire
California	New York (for waitresses also)
Colorado	Ohio
Connecticut	Oregon
Iowa	Rhode Island
Kansas (stores only)	South Carolina (stores only)
Louisiana	Tennessee (stores only)
Maine	Utah (stores only)
Maryland (Baltimore only)	Washington (schools also)
Massachusetts	Wisconsin
Missouri	

*Toilet Facilities*

Laws concerning proper and separate toilet facilities affect women working in factories, stores and all other establishments—measures demanded by mere decency, but too often unobserved, even in the 16 states where supposedly required by law.

*States Which Require Separate Toilet Facilities*

1. *Applies to both toilets and dressing-rooms.*

Indiana	Ohio
Michigan	Pennsylvania
Minnesota	Rhode Island
Missouri	Tennessee
New Jersey	West Virginia
New York	Wisconsin

2. *Applies to toilets only.*California  
IowaMassachusetts  
Tennessee*Sweatshops*

It has been shown that 19 states of the 52 legislate in some degree concerning women's *hours* of labor. All these laws however, besides their other omissions, fail to reach a very large and increasing number of workingwomen who labor in sweatshops or in tenement homes. Tenement industries, in the main, rest upon the home work of married women. This labor proves the chief exception to the rule which distinguishes American from foreign industry: the general absence of married women in manufacture and commerce. Our workingwomen include so large a proportion of young girls under 25 years, because in this country, women who marry after a short or long period of work, are supported by their husbands and replaced at work by a new set of young wage earners. A small percentage embracing textile workers and cigar makers continue in their trades after marriage. Conspicuous and newly arising exceptions to this rule are the stockyards, and the canneries in which married women, often with their children, are increasingly employed. The most widespread exception, however, is tenement home work.

While it is true that articles made or finished in New York tenements are sold in every state and territory of the Union, it is no less certain that such manufacture is increasing in the large and many smaller cities. The thousands of women who sew by hand or on foot power machines, making all varieties of women's and children's wear, and innumerable articles from paper bags to umbrellas and cigarettes—all labor during hours which, at seasons, end only with physical exhaustion. An investigation of homework in the small city of Newark in 1906 showed anew the evils of this system; an 18 and 20 hour day, a pittance of pay, and the wreck of all the decencies.

Moreover, the reaction of unrestricted home work upon the operation of factory laws is too often ignored. When employers are free to have work finished at home, after the legal closing hour (as is the practice in most branches of clothing manufacture, in candy making, etc.), laws restricting hours of labor are prac-

tically nullified. Factory work, transferred to the home, continues late into the night — with this difference, that the employer is saved the expense of running his establishment, and employees receive a lower wage.

Not until tenement manufacture is totally prohibited and the stream of workers turned into well ordered factories, will tenement dwellers be freed from this semi-pauper employment. Doubtless many married women who are now obliged to eke out the family income by unlimited hours of work at home, would be freed from the tyranny of the needle or machine, if the many men and unmarried women who work at tenement industries were transferred to better paying factories.

The desirability of abolishing tenement work forced upon all thoughtful observers, has not yet been embodied in the law of any state. In 1884 a law obtained by the cigar makers of New York, which forbade cigarmaking in tenements, was declared unconstitutional (*Re Jacobs vs. the State of New York*), and since then this decision has been held to block the way for prohibitions of tenement work. Prohibition being denied, the next best method of dealing with the problem is regulation and inspection of premises where work is carried on. Manifestly this effort is doomed to failure in so large a city as New York where in one year (1901) there were 20,000 licensed tenement homes and an unknown number of homes where work was done unlicensed. The system of subcontracting is carried on from family to family of foreigners, ignorant of our speech and laws. Without innumerable inspectors, the regulation of tenement work involves endless effort to do the impossible, to make safe by inspection what cannot be inspected, to keep homework and avoid its consequences.

In smaller communities the difficulties are the same in character, though less in extent. Many states have passed laws requiring different systems of inspection, registration of addresses to which work is given out, etc. But the effort to approximate in tenement workrooms the sanitary standards of factories has conspicuously failed. Regulation of the killing hours of labor in tenements for men, women and children has never been attempted.

Of all the sweatshop laws, that of New York is so far superior to the others that a brief statement of its essentials illustrates the best regulation yet secured.

*New York Sweatshop Law*

1. All tenements must be licensed in which manufacture of 32 articles specified in the law, is carried on.

2. The owner of the house must apply for the license and hang it conspicuously in the public hallway.

3. License is granted by the commissioner of labor after examination of the records of the board of health or tenement house department (if there is one) to see whether records show the presence of contagious or communicable disease or any un-complied orders or violations. If such exist, license may be denied without visiting the premises.

4. Before license is granted the commissioner of labor must inspect the premises; and each licensed tenement house must be inspected once in 6 months to determine its sanitary condition.

5. Whenever the commissioner of labor finds an apartment habitually filthy he may prohibit manufacture therein: when he finds articles manufactured in premises where contagious disease exists, or articles in a filthy condition, he may tag them, report them to the board of health for disinfection, or destroy them.

6. The contractor or goods owner must ascertain from the commissioner of labor whether the premises into which he proposes to send goods to be manufactured are licensed; he must keep a register of the names and addresses plainly written in English, of the persons to whom articles are sent and produce this register for the inspection of the commissioner of labor.

7. The home worker must not take work into an unlicensed tenement, and must keep clean the room or apartment in which work is done. He must not allow others than members of his family to work in his rooms.

*Dangerous Occupations*

If tenement manufacture is still uncontrolled, the so-called "dangerous trades" have not been even investigated, much less restricted by law, in this country. It is true that public opinion has declared against employment of women in certain occupations conspicuously dangerous to health or morals, such as mines and barrooms, and many states consequently prohibit their employment in these occupations. In a few states women are prohibited

from buffing or polishing metals. But the injurious effects of trades involving the use of poisons, gases, atmospheric extremes or other dangerous processes — such as have been carefully studied and restricted by legislation abroad — have received no attention here.

In conspicuous contrast to the meagre array of laws restricting *women's* labor, shown in this brief compilation, is the growing movement for an 8-hour day for men employed in mines or on public works. Five western states, Arizona, Colorado, Montana, Missouri and Utah prohibit employment of men in mines more than 8 hours in one day; 18 states restrict to 8 or 10 hours in one day all labor on public works. Moreover, unlike the laws restricting women's hours — reversed in Illinois, threatened in New York — these are powerful statutes, sustained by public opinion and court review. The Supreme Court at Washington has upheld as constitutional, state laws restricting men's hours of labor in mines, and state laws restricting their hours of labor on public works. (Re *Atkins vs. The People*, and *Holden vs. Hardy*). On the other hand when the New York law fixing an 8-hour day for all labor contracted for by the state, was declared in conflict with the state constitution, it was found entirely feasible to change the state constitution to fit the law. An amendment to the constitution, specifically authorizing the legislature to fix hours of labor on public works was submitted to the electors in November, 1905, and carried by a large vote.

Thus have men's hours of labor been restricted, because authoritatively demanded by the voters themselves, usually at the instigation of the unions. But in the same state where men work no more than 8 hours in mines or on public contracts, little girls from fourteen or sixteen years upwards may be employed 10 or even 12 hours in each day. Women do not profit by the 8-hour laws for men, since they labor neither in mines nor on public works. They have neither unions nor votes to enforce a demand for shorter hours. So young and so ignorant, in the main, are they, that they cannot even voice a coherent demand for their needs and rights. The trade agreement has in some instances shortened their hours of labor, but it has remained for philanthropists, in most states, to secure legislation in their behalf. Only the state, through laws, can protect its weaker laborers, and hither-

to such protection has been almost wholly lacking. To enforce the few beneficent statutes prohibiting night work and fixing hours of labor for women in states where such laws exist, and to obtain and enforce similar laws in other states — is a task imperiously demanded by the ever widening employment of women and the influence of their unregulated employment upon the nation's life.



THE EIGHTH BIENNIAL CONVENTION OF THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS.

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The eighth biennial convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs was held in St. Paul, Minnesota, May 30 to June 8, 1906. This meeting is well worth the attention of the student of social and political science, presenting, as it does, the growth and development of a great movement. From every section of the United States, with an occasional friend from across the border or from over the seas, came the two thousand delegates and visitors. Even a casual glance told the spectator that these were representative women, the happy grandmothers, mothers, wives and daughters, who stand for the best and sanest in American home and social life. The middle aged woman was strongly in evidence, but some of the most capable and most beautiful members had passed the three score mark, and many were still in the flush of youth. The general air was one of modest prosperity; in federation circles the woman of limited means makes no apology, the woman of wealth avoids all ostentation.

The sessions of this convention presented a four-fold aspect, the first being the business side. So excellent were the arrangements of the local committees, that there was no confusion as to meeting trains, delivering baggage promptly (no small item in a woman's conventions), obtaining credentials, securing information and seating delegates. The meetings began on time and ended on time. The order was excellent. The reports of the officers and working committees were clear and concise, while the minutes were models of their kind. The revision of the By-laws was accomplished with no loss of time or temper. Even the nominating committee and the election of officers passed without an unpleasant word. Motions were sound and practical, there was a delightful absence of

"making talk." Nothing was more interesting than to watch the faces of the delegates, when once in a great while, some injudicious speaker took the floor to urge her cause; there was an air of kind, courteous tolerance, a disposition to be open-minded, but beneath it all one saw the sturdy common sense, the sound judgment of the masses, and when the vote came, the true interest of the federation, as she saw it, was the one impelling power for each delegate. There was honest difference of opinion, but there was almost no personal feeling. When one reflects that the federation is only fifteen years old and that each convention presents a host of new delegates, this business development speaks much for the practical training club life has given women.

The second aspect may be called the educational, the hard-working, the bone and sinew side, represented by reports from chairmen of fourteen standing committees, these chairmen being reinforced by famous experts as speakers. It was fascinating to trace, varied as these committees seemed, how they all touch the home; this is the centripetal force that speaks volumes for the future of the federation. The Civil Service Committee made this resolution its center of attack: Believing that practical knowledge and ability are necessary in the care of the defective and delinquent, and realizing that the management of State institutions for these unfortunate classes should be in accordance with the most advanced views of economy and efficiency, be it

*Resolved*, That the General Federation of Women's Clubs devote itself for the next two years to securing the enactment of State laws which shall place all officials and employees of the charitable and reformatory institutions of the United States under the merit system of appointment." In the discussion delegates showed that they unanimously favored this because it meant more peace, more comfort for the delinquents and defectives, thus meaning more happiness for the homes of these unfortunates. The Reciprocity Committee presented plans whereby the strong club could help the weak, the town could learn from the country and the country from the town, each section could gain from the other. The course of study could be made so strong, and yet so attractive, that each member of the club woman's family would be interested, the tone of conversation would be raised and the solidarity of the home strengthened. The convention established at a cost of \$2,000 per

year a Bureau of Information, to aid in bringing about this desired consummation. The Library Extension Committee showed the marvellous work of traveling libraries, sent out in nearly every state by the influence of club organizations. These cases of books have brought happiness, inspiration and opportunity to the home and school all over our country. In trenchant terms the Civic Committee set forth the duty of women in home and municipal sanitation; practical methods of abating the smoke nuisance, of securing clean streets, healthful school buildings, proper milk and meat inspection were given with the authority of one who had brought things to pass. The Committee on Education brought out the need of more compulsory education laws, of better and more beautiful school buildings, of play-grounds, of more normal schools, of more expert supervision, of the training of the hand, and above all of right character building, which is the real test of home and school efficiency.

The Forestry Committee swept every woman on a wave of impassioned oratory to the firm belief that she had a pressing duty towards "Man's faithful servant and constant friend, the Forest," that no child was rightly educated unless he learned from mother and teacher:

"Woods were made for hunters of dreams,  
And the streams for the fisher of song,  
To those who hunt for the gunless game,  
The streams and the woods belong.

There are thoughts that moan from the soul of the pine  
And thoughts in the flower bell curled,  
And thoughts that are blown with the scent of the fern  
Are as new and as old as the world."

The following resolution was passed with enthusiasm:

*Resolved*, That the General Federation of Women's Clubs continue the support of such legislation as shall secure forest reserves in the Appalachian and White Mountains, preserve the integrity of the Minnesota Forest reserve and the Calaveras groves."

It was proved by the Literature Committee that the day of the study club would never pass, that as the federation movement

sprung from the trained mind of true culture, so for each new inspiration we must go to the well-springs of the world's best literature: and that the antidote for the material tendency of the day was to control the reading, thereby controlling the conversation of the home circle.

The Industrial and also the Child Labor Committee made an impassioned appeal for the betterment of the home and working conditions of women and children who toil for daily bread, for a better understanding between the rich and the poor, and for the establishment of juvenile courts. It was decided "to endorse the work of the Industrial Committee in its efforts to secure the passage of a bill to authorize the secretary of commerce and labor to investigate and report upon the industrial, social, moral, educational, and physical condition of the woman and child laborers in the United States."

That many states have barbaric laws regarding property rights of women, that it is the duty of women better to inform themselves on these laws and then have them changed, was clearly established by the Legislative Committee.

The Household Economic and Pure Food Committees presented what had been done during the past two years in each state, showed vividly what must be done and done quickly to secure the passage of the Pure Food Law before Congress. Telegrams were immediately sent by each State President to every member of her delegation in the lower house of Congress, asking for the prompt passage of the law; encouraging replies poured in. History now records that the bill has become a law: will History record how marked a part was played in the securing of this law by the General Federation?

In addition to these morning sessions every committee was given an afternoon hour for a free conference; here the delegates and visitors had an opportunity to exchange experiences; so interested were both speakers and listeners that it was difficult to secure adjournment. A model flat, pure food exhibits, display of artistic pottery and metal work, handicraft from various schools, displays from individual states, and the federation art gallery were on exhibition at the old Capitol to the edification of hundreds.

If the day was filled with problems so serious as to oppress the conscientious woman with the burden of duty and responsibility.

the evening programs might well be called inspiring vistas from the mountain tops. The first night was given to speeches of welcome, when the highest dignitaries of church, state, school and club poured into the crystal loving-cup of hospitality their choicest vintage. Next came three minute reports from the Presidents of State federations, answering "Watchman, what of the night?" As these forty-six women, standing for forty-six types, forty-six localities, forty-six sets of interests, brought message after message of good cheer, brought accounts of *deeds done*, not of words spoken,—she were a dullard indeed, who did not gratefully say, "With God's help all things are indeed possible to us."

"Our Opportunities" was the night that proved it is "the opportunity of every American citizen to co-operate with every other American citizen, no matter how widely separated are their social spheres." Settlement Work, The Consumers' League, the Press, National Municipal League, American Civic Association, Juvenile Courts, National Child Labor Committee, International Sunshine Society—these were the topics that widened the horizon and sent each listener away feeling it a privilege to be allowed to share such opportunities.

The third evening preached the gentle gospel of Art, demonstrated that art is a social dynamic, lifted the audience from the practical and material into the ideal and the spiritual.

An original idea was the musical program devoted to Women Composers, the interpreters being artists of national reputation. Nothing was more enjoyed during the Biennial.

"Women in the Professions" gave an intimate glimpse into the experiences of women who are successful in education, journalism, ministry, law, medicine, and the stage: wit and wisdom kept the audience in a constant state of delight.

For President's Night Mrs. Decker chose the motto, "East, West, Home's Best": A woman from each of the four sections pictured the life, the needs, the achievement of her people, while the President bound the four into one composite whole. The Key-note of this program from the first spoken word, through the exquisite music rendered, "Land of the Moccasin Flower" for the North, "Old Kentucky Home" for the South, "Pilgrim Fathers" for the East, "Land of the West" for the West, and "Home Sweet Home" for every one, was patriotism, the highest patriotism that

blazons on the shield of each not North, nor South, nor East, nor West, but the *one* word that means all of these, the word we love, *America*.

On Sunday came the beautiful vesper service when old hymns that have stood the test of generations were sung, when a few earnest, helpful words were spoken, then the tear-stained eye, the trembling lip, the solemn hush bespoke the moral uplift that came to those who shared that blessed hour.

In the life of a well rounded woman external beauty and social amenities can not be omitted. This was the fourth aspect of the Biennial. The artistic decoration of the place of meeting,—a genuine creation that deserves to be ranked as a model for future committees—the cordial receptions in the best private homes of St. Paul, the magnificent hospitality of Governor and Mrs. Johnson in the new State Capitol, the al fresco entertainment at the Falls of Minnehaha and the Country Club,—all these added a finishing touch to the picture.

While all other names have been omitted from this article, yet no account of the Eighth Biennial Convention can go on record without a word of appreciation for the loving and beloved President, Mrs. Sarah S. Platt-Decker.

“It has been the woman’s part since the beginning to put into the world beauty, regeneration, and uplifting. These are the things we shall speak of this week. These are the purposes for which we have met.”

From these eloquent opening words of her response to the addresses of welcome, through every hour of the long convention she was the ideal presiding officer.

## MEN'S VIEWS OF WOMEN'S CLUBS

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A SYMPOSIUM, BY MEN WHO ARE RECOGNIZED LEADERS IN THE  
PHILANTHROPIC AND REFORM MOVEMENTS IN AMERICA

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Except in the United States Congress, I know of no body of men or women representing so much of intellect and heart, so much of culture and influence, and so many of the highest hopes and noblest possibilities of the American people as the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

The industrial revolution, which transferred many activities from the home to the factory, has created new social conditions and new problems of adjustment. It is fitting that women who have now been freed from the burden laid on them by the age of homespun, should devote some of the new leisure thus bestowed to the solution of the new problems thus created.

It looks as if women's clubs might take a leading part in the great work of industrial improvement and in establishing right relations between employers and employees. As wives they sympathize with the perplexities of the former, and as women they sympathize with the hardships of the latter. With a hand upon each they may do much to reconcile both.

JOSIAH STRONG

*President of American Institute of Social Service.*

I am quite at a loss to understand the logic of those who are opposed to women's clubs. It seems to me that to be consistent, such persons ought to be opposed to women taking any part in the church or in social life, on the ground that this withdraws them from their families. The Oriental harem seems to me the complete realization of this ideal. I do not even think that Emperor William was quite consistent in saying that the three "K's" ("Kinder, Kueche and Kirche") represented woman's proper sphere. To be logical he ought to have left the church out; that would tie her still closer to the cradle. My own idea is that natural affec-

tion furnishes all the ligaments necessary to bind a woman to her home, and that the danger that women's clubs will prevent mothers from loving their children is quite visionary. I have found these clubs of great value, especially in the particular matter with which I have been mostly connected, the Reform of the Civil Service. In the earlier days of our agitation for that reform we used to keep them out of the movement, but since the women's auxiliaries have been established, and since women take part with us in our meetings and our banquets, I feel sure that we have greatly increased our strength and have added a new instrumentality which has done, perhaps, more in extending civil service reform sentiment throughout those parts of the country where these auxiliaries have existed than any other one agency.

WM. D. FOULKE

*United States Civil Service Commissioner.*

I appreciate so deeply the effective work that the clubs have done throughout the country in arousing an interest in the subject of child labor, that I am glad of an opportunity to express this appreciation. No better illustration of the fine educational work and high moral purpose of the women's clubs, as represented in the General Federation, can be found than in their persistent and discriminating study of the problem of child labor in the United States. I have found in all the States where the clubs are active and federated that the ground is prepared for progressive legislation on this subject. This is a great work for the American home, and the arousing of the intelligent interest of thousands of women who otherwise would not know of the great evils of child labor is a worthy contribution to American civilization.

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY

*Secretary National Child Labor Committee.*

The women's clubs throughout the country have taken an active part, during the last three years, in the child labor movement. The General Federation of Women's Clubs at its biennial convention, held at St. Louis, Mo., last May, for the information of its constituent members, adopted resolutions in favor of a definite national program throughout the United States. These resolutions represent, so far as we are aware, the only attempt to state a defi-



nite national program of child labor legislation based upon a study of all legislation and efforts to secure its enforcement up to the present time.

HOMER FOLKS

*Vice-Chairman, National Child Labor Committee.*

For the past five years I have been actively engaged in the interest of better laws for the protection of the home and the children. In this behalf I have visited some twenty States. I have found in that time wonderful progress, and scarcely without exception it has been the members of the women's clubs who have championed every good law and secured the passage of nearly all the advanced legislation upon the statute books for the protection of the home and the children. Much of this legislation relating to child labor, delinquent and dependent children, and the rights of women as well as children, has been of such incalculable value and of such tremendous importance as must be felt for good in thousands of homes in this country.

Therefore I do not agree with the criticisms of women's clubs by ex-President Cleveland. I do not know of a church society which is more philanthropic in its purposes than are the women's clubs. Mr. Cleveland's criticism, if justifiable, would practically limit the activity of women to their own homes. Of course the individual home comes first in importance. No one has advocated this more than the women's clubs; but they are unselfish and Christian enough to appreciate that they owe a duty to society, and to other homes. They realize that to a certain extent, all children are their children. Most members of the women's clubs have already reared a family, and some of the most active are, without sacrificing the duty they owe to their own homes, able to do much towards advancing every movement intended for the betterment of the homes of all the people.

I am sure the ex-President has spoken without that due deliberation which so generally characterizes his utterances. Of course he is sincere in his own championship of the home, but he cannot be well posted in the fight which has been waged so successfully in many of the States, unless he credits the results largely to the influence of good women who are members of women's clubs, who have worked unceasingly for others without neglect of their own homes. There may be exceptional cases of neglect of the

home for club work, but this would no more justify denunciation of the women's clubs than a similar condition in churches would prove them a menace to virtue.

BEN B. LINDSEY

*Judge of Juvenile Court, Denver, Colorado.*

One of the striking characteristics of women's organizations in this country has been their passion for social righteousness. Moreover, I have long been convinced that women's clubs have an important function to perform in the creation of public opinion and that they are performing it in a most acceptable manner.

That club life with women is liable to abuse like club life with men has never seemed to me either an effective or a fair argument against them. We do not judge the Christian Church by the few men and women who use it as a cloak for their iniquity. No more should we judge women's clubs by those who use them as cloaks for mere ambition, or as a means of avoiding their domestic or marital duties.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF

*Secretary National Municipal League.*

Mr. Hale, after alluding to Mrs. Howe's different claims upon public gratitude, said that looking back upon her life Mrs. Howe may be glad and grateful for all she had done in the establishing of women's clubs. They came in upon us just at the time when they were most needed. At the end of the century the average man in any of our great cities was one thousand times as strong as he was when the century began. This means that we have created so many of the giants who do work for us that the average man can command to-day one thousand times the physical strength which he could command in 1805. Now it is easy to say that this strength must be wielded by moral power. We do say that familiarly and freely, but what forces are you to use in the direction of this moral power? Mrs. Howe and the ladies who have worked with her have done their share by creating the women's clubs which exist all over the country. I do not say that all these exercise moral power. Some of them do not. The moment a club exists for itself alone, only that the members may "have a good time," that Thursday afternoon or Wednesday evening may be "occupied," its members are going to the devil as fast as they can. But the clubs which exist for the good of mankind, for helping forward the kingdom of God,

they succeed. They ought to succeed and they do succeed. It ought to be a part of the constitution of every club that no meeting shall pass in which a club has not done something for the benefit of others; and it is because so many of the women's clubs have devoted themselves to such endeavors, that they have enjoyed the measure of success which has waited upon them. Mrs. Howe would be among the first to seek such success in any organization with which she is connected.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE

*Extract from an Address Delivered on the 86th Anniversary of the Birthday of Julia Ward Howe.*

The Women's Clubs have taken a leading part in many of the most important reform movements in elementary education within the last twenty years. In many cities these clubs have been the direct means of introducing manual training, cooking and sewing into the public schools. In some communities they have supported classes in these studies at their own expense, to educate public sentiment and to prove to school boards and city councils the wisdom of making them a part of the public school system. Kindergartens have been made a part of the public school system in many communities through their instrumentality in the same way. These clubs have had much to do with the movement to establish playgrounds for children. One of the marked influences of women on school boards is the great improvement in the sanitary conditions of schools of recent years, and the women's clubs have, in many communities, been influential in large measure in securing women members of such boards.

In Massachusetts, the various women's organizations have within the last few years made a study of schools and school conditions throughout the State, with a thoroughness that has never been attempted before. The indirect influence of such work on public sentiment is of quite as great value as its direct influence in furthering reforms. It is not too much to say that reform movements in public school education have found for the last twenty years some of their strongest support in the women's organizations of various kinds.

THOMAS M. BALLIET

*Dean of School of Pedagogy, New York University.*

The women's clubs in Michigan have been very useful in promoting the culture and friendship of educated women, and also in raising funds for the establishment of fellowships in this University. We regard ourselves as under great obligations to them. They also discuss with great intelligence the problems of public education.

Yours truly,

JAMES B. ANGELL.

*President of University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.*

The woman who is a member of a woman's club, is a progressionist. The man who scoffs at a progressionist is a pessimist, and the pessimist who knows the least of woman's clubs condemns them the most. It can be said, without fear of successful denial, that America leads, and the world follows. The American citizen is the highest type of independence and patriotism, of civic advancement, of progress in science, in the life intellectual, the life commercial and the solution of socio-political problems. Would it not be unreasonable to deny the wife, the mother, the sister or the daughter of that citizen, the right of woman to progress as man progresses; to belong to a woman's club, whose tenets are for the noblest purposes and highest ideals of modern civilization?

Women's clubs are the natural product of a progressive sex in a progressive age. They stand for intellectual and social culture, for philanthropic and educational work, for the discussion of the improvement of the home, the solution of domestic problems. They do not impair home life; on the contrary they promote it. They do not tend to race suicide; the majority of members of women's clubs are mothers. They not only improve their own homes, but they extend the helping hand of benevolence to other homes—to other people's children, the fatherless and oppressed, to the poor children of the city, whose outings and vacation schools are a few of the many beautiful philanthropies where the altruistic doctrine of women's clubs is apparent.

Women's clubs stand for the home, for the school, for art, and literature and music, for domestic science, for the intellectual advancement of the American woman who presides over the American home, and the fathers should be proud of the fact that the mothers of the rising generation have the priceless advantage of belonging to clubs, which tend to promote, not only the social and intel-

lectual culture of the mother, but safeguard the most competent rearing of the child.

I believe in women's clubs, because I am in an official position as Superintendent of Compulsory Education, in Chicago, to know the vast amount of good they have accomplished in child-saving work, in securing legislation on compulsory education, parental schools and juvenile courts, and in the suppression of child labor. Women's clubs are not theoretical; they are practical; they act; they do things for the good of society, for the good of the community and the country. The greater woman means the better nation. While men have been busy quarreling over the money question and the tariff question, women's clubs have been busy safeguarding humanity.

Men's clubs, as a rule, are purely social. Women's clubs are not. Which is of greater value to home life? There can be but one reasonable deduction in the answer. Let us concede it to the women's clubs, not only in a gracious spirit, but in the spirit of fact.

I believe in women's clubs. What this country needs is more women's clubs, more of the Mothers' Congresses, more National Councils of Women, more Catholic Women's Leagues, for in organized womanhood lies the moral and intellectual hope of this republic. They must furnish settlement of the divorce question and other sociological problems that the procrastination and propitiation of mankind has failed to solve.

W. L. BODINE

*Superintendent of Compulsory Education, Chicago.*

Doubtless there are clubs and clubs among women, as among men. Some are excellent,—that I know;—some may be indifferent; perhaps some are bad. It sometimes happens that men organize and administer clubs for selfish or unworthy purposes. It would be very unreasonable to expect that it would be otherwise with women, but my observation leads me to believe that both the motives and the practices of women's clubs are relatively free from objectionable features. I have occasionally been allowed to hear their addresses, essays and discussions, and I have been no stranger to the proceedings of clubs, local, State and National. I am glad to testify with confidence to the high purpose and valuable work

they are doing. Aside from the individual culture and the general intelligence, they unquestionably promote the public welfare.

I have been in frequent touch with the Wednesday Club of this city for some fifteen years. It has done and is still doing valuable work individually and collectively. While the "Economic Section" has not solved all the problems of modern society, it has led to a study of actual conditions, and particularly has it encouraged a judicial attitude by reading and discussing papers on both sides, or on all sides, of live economic questions. I am glad to bear my testimony to the lofty spirit which pervades the club work, and to the sustained interest it has in matters which ought to interest all of us, and which do interest all cultivated and public-spirited people. In cases without number, it has been my privilege to sit behind the scenes, as it were, and take a modest part in hunting up material and in throwing light, and in profiting thereby.

There is no doubt about the influence of the women's clubs of Missouri in securing legislation in favor of school attendance, educational appropriations, and civic improvements. In short, they seem to me to be "seeking earnestly the best gifts," and I cannot for a moment admit that they deserve any general condemnation. They have drawn out and stimulated the intellectual and social powers of the members, and thus enriched their lives without loss of dignity, the neglect of home, or the sacrifice of womanly character.

CALVIN MILTON WOODWARD

*President Board of Education, St. Louis, Mo.*

It gives me great pleasure to say a few words in regard to the work which has been done by women's clubs. I find that they are alive to the great social problems of the day, especially those which look to the good of the home, the purity of food and the cause of temperance.

I thoroughly believe in organization. I stand with our President in his views about unions. I believe that woman is a human being and that she has the same right to organize for good purposes that man has. I see no danger to the home in such organization as long as its purposes are high and its methods clean. I can realize a condition of women's clubs which, like some men's clubs, would be unfortunate. I have known men's clubs whose chief purposes were card-playing for money, and drinking; but,

fortunately, such instances are very few. The immense majority of men's clubs are organized on the highest principles and result in the highest good. The same, I believe, to be true of women's clubs. There may be a few which are bad, but the immense majority are good.

My chief point of contact with women's clubs has been in the cause of pure food. In this matter I found them the most efficient organizations now existing. They are enthusiastic, hard working, persistent and effective. I fully believe that whenever the women of this country, as, for instance, through the Federation of Women's Clubs of America, shall demand legislation regulating interstate traffic in adulterated foods and drinks, that legislation will be forthcoming. When the women's clubs are fully aroused in this matter, it will not be possible any longer for organized selfishness to block the wheels of legislation for the purpose of securing an additional profit in trade. The Federation of Women's Clubs of America is in favor of pure food legislation because it means honesty, freedom from danger to the family, security for the proper spending of the money for household needs, and a general improvement in health and morality.

I could never be brought to the belief that organization among men or women for such purposes would be liable to lead to undesirable ends. I fully realize that in work of this kind, as in every other good work, enthusiasm may lead to extreme measures, but that is no argument at all against the general usefulness or wholesomeness of such organization. I fully realize, too, the peculiar function of woman in social life. I know she is not intended by nature, by taste nor by education, as a rule, to follow the pursuits which are reserved for men, but I fail to see by what natural cause or by what social necessity she is to be excluded from a participation, in an organized way, in the great problems which look to the uplifting of man.

I think it will be a sorry day for our country when women's clubs cease to exist. It augurs well for the future happiness and welfare of our Nation to see these organizations increase in numbers, efficiency and solidarity.

H. M. WILEY

*Chief of Bureau of Chemistry, U. S. Department of Agriculture.*

I call attention to the fact not generally understood, that the larger share of the local civic study clubs and improvement associations in which men and women share the privileges of social activities in their immediate environment, are brought into being through the efforts of the club women. In some cases individual club members become interested and broadened in their conception of civic duty so that they go out into the highways and verily compel the men to unite with them in some effort for the common good. In other instances, a carefully planned campaign conducted by a department or committee of the club will result in a well organized associated effort of men and women. An almost universal subject of discussion among the clubs of to-day is "how to get the men interested" in the work which they realize cannot be fully carried out by the women working alone. . . . .

The greater number of the "women's clubs" are altruistic and community-serving in many of their activities, while much the smallest proportion of the men's "clubs" are interested in other than the personal pleasure of its membership. . . . .

I am one of those who believe that the church might and should have its stamp on much that is done for the betterment of the community. Unfortunately, too few pastors and lay workers appreciate this broad possibility; in fact, the usual attitude is one of fear,—fear that "home missions" touching clean streets, better back yards, broader educational opportunities and other immediate neighborhood needs will detract from the routine demands of the local church administration. But we may well believe that "Jerusalem" is in the home and the vital interests of the home, even before many of the worthy activities of the church further down the street.

The critics of the club, or better, those who wish to utilize the club idea and the social spirit as expressed by many of the clubs, can do no less than to actually study the situation and withhold criticisms and plans until an open mind and careful investigation have afforded reasonable grounds for a judgment. Please understand that this is not a defense of the club, nor is it a criticism of the church, but rather a plea for a broad, sympathetic, and absorbing study of the club movement of the better sort among the men and women of to-day.

E. G. ROUTZAHN

*Secretary Civic-Co-operation, Chicago.*



## Communications

### REPORT OF THE CIVIC COMMITTEE.

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(Presented at the Biennial Meeting of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, at St. Paul, June, 1906, by Kate Cassatt MacKnight, Chairman Civic Committee.)

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Probably no committee, reporting to you to-day, has found it so difficult to collect, and select, the information rightly belonging to it, as has the Civic Committee. Why? Because the term civics is such an elastic one, and is generally used by the clubs all over the country to indicate any altruistic work performed by the club as a whole. To me it has seemed all the more interesting and marvellous to realize how civic work—as undertaken by our clubs—interlaces, and joins hands, with that of the Forestry Committee, the Child Labor, the Pure Food, the Library Extension, and in fact with all the wonderful committees appointed by our wonderful President.

But nevertheless, the absence of lines of demarcation has rendered it surprisingly difficult for me to know just what to include or exclude. The first problem presented to the minds of your committee was, how it would be possible to suggest the best lines of work, and manner of procedure, to clubs all over our broad land, where local conditions would be totally dissimilar; and, on that account, suggestions from outsiders—unfamiliar with such conditions—might prove most injudicious.

For this reason, and because of the impossibility of giving expert advice to hundreds of widely separated clubs, it was decided to prepare a handbook, giving concise, simple and practical suggestions, on a host of subjects, all suitable to be taken up by town and village improvement societies—as well as by committees for civic work, appointed by literary, and other clubs. This little book, then, "A Civic Primer," was the result, and is virtually the report of our committee. I commend it to your notice, and I hope all the club members present will obtain one of these little volumes before leaving St. Paul. A copy of it has been sent to every club belonging to the General Federation, and to the president of each State Federation. Over one thousand copies remain to be sold at the nominal price of ten cents each. We really feel that this simple little book will prove most helpful and suggestive to many clubs—even those organized entirely for study and self-development, and calling themselves "purely literary clubs."

The literary and self-culture club is, as a rule, the beginning and support of all those important elements, which foster the growth and influence

of our Federation; and which develop the interests of women in the forward movement of humanity. For, after spending months studying the idealism of Tennyson, or the scathing arraignment of all that is sordid, found in Browning, or after reading a course of Carlyle, and becoming imbued with his scorn of the pettiness of the pretentious world; then, at last coming to John Ruskin, with his appeal for more simple and spiritual living, for more beautiful surroundings, and less destruction of all that is fine and noble in ourselves, and in our surroundings; after all this, and other strong and wholesome mental pabulum, one naturally begins to open one's eyes, to look about, and to inquire if we have any right to continue to live amid hideous surroundings; or to permit the children of our "land of the free" to be destroyed by drudgery, or vicious environment; or to stand idly by while the grandest, most beautiful, and picturesque scenery in our country is destroyed by the blind greed of grasping commercialism!

Every literary club, which adds to its program some little discussion of the great civic questions of the day, will soon be repaid for what is done along altruistic lines, by the broader interest, the deepening of character, and the growing and genuine respect in which the club will be held by the community in which it is placed. It is most encouraging to note, from the reports sent to me by many of the states, what wonderful things have been done, and are being accomplished through the influence of club women in every section of the country. And yet many of the clubs, in some of our most progressive states, still report doing nothing in the line of civic work. Kentucky, Pennsylvania and Massachusetts are well in the lead, with a long list of improvements not only undertaken, but accomplished. Probably the most interesting report of all that I received, came from California, and was written by the courageous Chairman of the Civic Committee among the ruins of what was a few weeks ago, the magnificent city of San Francisco. In it she reports that fifty-seven of the California clubs do civic work of some kind, spreading their energetic work along a multitude of different lines—such as caring for all roads and cemeteries, beautifying school grounds, planting trees and destroying pests, *organizing fire departments*, erecting fountains, etc.

They have also co-operated in the work of the Juvenile Court, have had women physicians appointed for state hospitals for the insane and feeble minded, and have united in urging forward a number of other important reforms.

In my report at the council meeting held last June in Atlantic City, I suggested that the civic work undertaken by the clubs be carried on along lines falling under the following classifications:

Municipal sanitation.

Municipal cleanliness—both material and moral.

The City Beautiful.

In the reports I have received, I observe that the City Beautiful appeals to the largest number of clubs, a large majority having reported the planting of trees, improvement of unsightly waste tracks of ground, the acquisition of parks, having railroad stations made more attractive and the

surrounding grounds turned into gardens, improvement of school grounds, the distribution of flower seeds and of plants to school children, and rewarding by prizes those who are most successful with plant or garden.

I would urge on all clubs, interested in the City Beautiful, to study the "Plan of Grouping Public Buildings," as already adopted by Cleveland, Washington, St. Louis and other cities, and to interest themselves actively, whenever any new public building is to be erected in their midst, to have the "Group Plan" adopted by the local authorities.

Much has been gained, also, along the lines of sanitation and municipal cleanliness, through the influence of our club women. A number of clubs report having garbage collected regularly. In Kentucky, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania and California, great interest is shown in the study and prevention of the ravages of tuberculosis, and in the establishment of camps and sanitariums, where those afflicted with the white plague can be properly cared for, their sufferings relieved, and where they are frequently restored to health. Streets have been kept clean, and, in some cases watered; anti-expectoration laws passed and enforced; hospitals opened and sustained; the smoke nuisance abated, etc.

In Texas, an active campaign was waged last summer against the stegomyia mosquito, with his preference for yellow fever germs—many of the club women assailing his haunts personally, with ample offerings of mosquito-killing kerosene. In Ottumwa, Iowa, and in Lisbon, North Dakota, regular "cleaning-up days" have been established; a very good idea for small towns or villages, where, we are assured from the latter place, "everybody works—even father."

I must not weary you with too long an enumeration of deeds accomplished but must take one moment longer to draw your attention to the heading of "Moral Municipal Cleanliness," which might better, perhaps, be called "Public Welfare." All the work for delivering children from vicious surroundings may be classed under this head, and I am happy to say, a large number of the clubs realize its importance. Probably few of the forms of modern philanthropy appeal to us more than the Juvenile Court, and the oversight of naughty children (many of them more sinned against than sinning) by probation officers, selected for their efficiency. The club women in many of our states are co-operating heartily in this work. Clubs for street boys and girls, and sewing schools for the latter have been opened and are conducted by our club women; crusades have been conducted against pool rooms, against cigarettes, to close saloons on Sunday and keep them far away from the neighborhood, objectionable posters have been banished, indecent advertisements put a stop to, slot machines for gambling closed up; and in Kentucky, prize fights were prevented, both in Louisville and Harrodsburg. In several places the authorities have been prevailed upon to establish matrons in the police stations, to treat gently the unfortunate creatures who drift thither.

I have not yet mentioned three of the most important matters which claim a large amount of attention in several of our states, and these are, "free kindergartens, summer play-grounds and vacation schools and chil-

dren's leagues of good citizenship." Our club women help to establish and conduct all of these, and it would be impossible to estimate the good thus accomplished, in the development of character, and the training of the future citizen.

After all, nothing will repay us so much as the protection, care and training of our children, who are to take upon their shoulders the government of our country, after we have passed hence, and this part of the work of a civic committee I especially commend to your careful and prayerful consideration. Try to shield the children morally by preventing coarse, vulgar and impure things being brought to their notice—either through the eyes or the ears. It is not only the children of our own immediate families who require to be so protected, but those of our poorer neighbor, in the neglected back street or alley. They, also, must be kept pure and trained aright, or they may some time become centers for evil in the community.

This brief review of altruistic work, done by club women throughout this country, has been perforce a hasty one; but, surely the record is surprising. Let us "thank God and take courage," for He has brought many wonderful things to pass through our instrumentality; and yet, so far, we are but on the threshold of the great things we are to accomplish. "Let us, then, not be weary in well doing, for in due season we shall reap, if we faint not."

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#### REPORT OF PURE FOOD COMMITTEE.

(Presented at the Biennial Meeting of the General Federation of Women's Clubs at St. Paul, June, 1906, by Mrs. Walter McNab Miller, Chairman, Columbia, Mo.)

The Pure Food Committee in making its first bow in public feels, on the one hand, a natural hesitation in speaking of what has been accomplished; but, on the other hand, its very youth makes it want to tell every single thing that it has done. Called into existence less than two years ago to help in the fight for a Federal law to protect the consumer in one State from food improperly labeled or adulterated and shipped into it from another State, it has far outgrown this its chrysalis stage, and is using its new found wings to touch at all points where pure food issues are at stake. It has turned its attention not only to legislative details, but to milk and water supply, meat and market inspection, system of uniform labeling, food standards, and has been fairly appalled at the work it has found crying to be done.

To ascertain conditions in various States and to secure co-operation from the clubs and State officials, this committee has written some 2,000 letters, sent circulars to every State in the Union, and tried by personal letters, talks, exhibits, and distribution of literature, to arouse interest in the cause. It has petitioned and memorialized the President, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Senate and the House, has kept up an incessant news-

paper warfare, usually through friendly editors, rather than over its own signature, and has worked in season and out of season to waken the public conscience to the ethical questions involved in this fight for the honest label.

That our efforts have not been entirely in vain, witness the following facts: (1) Twenty-five States have done work in pure food during the past year and five others are to take it up next year. (2) The Pure Food Bill this last winter, for the first time passed the Senate. (3) The Department of Agriculture, in response to a demand created by this committee, has just published an exceptionally fine Bulletin for housekeepers on "Some Forms of Food Adulteration," a few copies of which we have here and additional numbers of which can be obtained from the Superintendent of Public Documents.

There has also been published for our special use a report by the Secretary of the Interstate Pure Food Commission, which can be obtained by signing a list which can be found in the Exhibit, and letters of appreciation of the work of the Federation have been received from all sides.

An extract from one written by Dr. Wiley is typical, and is as follows:

"I think the Women's Clubs of this country have done a great work in whatever they have undertaken towards the betterment of the conditions of society. There is something wonderful in the power which organized effort can develop, and the women of this country through organized effort in my opinion can secure any good thing which they demand. Their work in behalf of pure food legislation, both in the States and in the National Congress, has been wonderfully effective.

"I sincerely hope that the organization of women of this country for all purposes of the public good may be perfected and extended, as thereby the ethical principles which they represent can be more effectually and more speedily enforced throughout the whole land."

Did time and space not forbid, many tributes of similar import could be given, showing the cordial appreciation of the work done by the women in this pure food campaign, by men who are leading in the fight for commercial honesty.

From most of the letters to state presidents and secretaries came cordial and full responses, and from these letters the following facts and suggestions have been collected:

Arizona says: "Our produce comes from such a distance that the preservatives used frequently render food unfit for use. We are working hard for a pure food law in this territory, but progress seems slow."

Arkansas, evidently, is all right, for several letters receive no response.

In Alabama, no attempt has been made to enforce the food laws of the State.

California has a good law, but, save in the matter of dairy produce, no attempt has been made to enforce the laws of the State until very recently.

Colorado, with its efficient resident member of the general Pure Food Committee, is doing fine educational work, which will certainly result in a good law at the next Legislature.

Connecticut says: "The moral effect of our law has been great. Public sentiment has been awakened by our work, which is accessible through our printed reports; the Federation of Women's Clubs is agitating the subject all over the State on the side of the consumer, and the outlook is better than ever before for the suppression of the sale of adulterated food."

In Delaware, the inspection seems to be indeed a bread and butter question, as the law provides only for these two things.

Florida's "Pure Food Law has no way of enforcing a penalty, so of course it is not enforced. The club women are taking up the subject."

Georgia never responded to inquiries, but has a law regulating liquors and flour.

Idaho says: "We are doing a great work in the State toward the prohibition of the sale of adulterated foods. The great drawback is that the Commission has such a multiplicity of duties that it has little time to give to the food question."

Illinois has a good law and a Food Commissioner whose duty it is to enforce all laws relating to the subject, but some of the worst interstate offenders in mis-branding and adulteration are in Chicago.

Indiana has a State Laboratory of Hygiene, under control of the State Board of Health, with an appropriation of \$5000 for equipment and \$10,000 for maintenance. "The laboratory is used in making analyses of foods and drugs, making sanitary and pathological examinations, etc., and in all ways aids in the enforcement of health laws," an arrangement which seems to be ideal.

Iowa's last Legislature passed a good food law and her women helped in the good cause.

Kansas has no general food law. The last Legislature passed a law making it the duty of the State University and State Agricultural College to make analyses of foods and beverages upon request of the Board of Health, but no appropriation was made, and the work of these institutions is already too heavy to make such additional duties possible.

Kentucky has a fine law, administered by the State Experiment Station in the most fearless manner. They complain, however, of the lack of a Federal Law, as Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Tennessee, West Virginia and other states impose adulterations upon local dealers and are beyond the jurisdiction of State Courts. The Pure Food Committee is under great obligations to the Kentucky Station for helping it in its work.

Louisiana never responded, but the State Board of Health has charge in a general way of health conditions.

Maine has a new law, administered by the Agricultural Experiment Station.

Maryland has a State Board of Health charged with the enforcement of certain food laws, but the appropriation is so small that it is impossible to cover the ground, even in the cities of the State. Her club women are doing splendid work, and the articles on "Safe Foods and How to Get Them," by Mrs. Abel of Baltimore are most scientific and helpful.

Massachusetts was the first State to enforce laws relative to purity of

foods, and has a most efficient State Board of Health and State Dairy Bureau. There have been forty-two pure food meetings in Massachusetts clubs in six months, due to the activity of the pure food member from that State, and the strong pressure brought to bear on Congress from the physicians of Boston and New York in favor of the Heyburn Bill was exerted through her influence.

Michigan has its food laws administered by the State Dairy and Food Commissioner. "The dairy laws are most efficient; the food laws less effective, though the co-operation of honest manufacturers and dealers and the enthusiastic support of the clubs are decreasing the adulterated products and another year will see great gains."

Minnesota has a new code which has just gone into effect and promises to be most effective. Judging by the courtesy, ability, and generosity shown our Pure Food Committee by the State officials and by the local Pure Food Committee, Minnesota has set a pace which it will be difficult for the other states to follow.

Mississippi has no adequate laws, and not enough interest in the matter to send a response to inquiries.

Missouri "begs to be excused, please, for being on the black list, but she had to be 'shown,' and so far has been able to see no farther than that her dairying industries needed protection. Another Legislature convenes next winter, and our women are at work and expect to succeed."

Montana has milk and meat inspectors in certain counties, but no officer specially charged with the enforcement of the food laws of the State. Her State President writes: "The Pure Food Laws are better enforced in Butte than elsewhere."

Nebraska sends the following: "Our law is so narrow that we cannot reach the majority of adulterations, but we have analyzed many products and published the results, in the hope that the people of the State will demand a broader law of our next Legislature." The State has a wide-awake committee and we expect to hear of a victory for pure food at our next biennial.

Nevada has no provision for enforcing such laws as she has.

New Hampshire's food laws are well administered by the State Board of Health.

New Jersey's food laws are administered by the State Board of Health, but very imperfectly. If the officials were half as active and interested as the member of the Pure Food Committee from that State, New Jersey would be our model. She has worked untiringly in the cause, and has done a great deal to arouse interest in the good work through letters, talks, and newspaper articles.

New Mexico has no provision for enforcing the food laws; in fact, considers violations of the law merely misdemeanors.

New York has its food laws administered by the State Department of Agriculture, but when a Legislature could defeat such a bill as the one introduced at its last session for the protection of its citizens against patent medicines, we think there is need of an arousing of the public conscience.

North Carolina has a fairly satisfactory law, which the State Department of Agriculture is attempting to enforce, but the State Board of Health of South Carolina has no appropriation, and makes no attempt to regulate the sale of adulterated foods.

North and South Dakota have admirable laws, rigidly enforced. As we have with us a representative official from that region we shall hear all about these laws. The first bill introduced into the South Dakota Legislature by the women's clubs was for meat inspection and was introduced by a woman, Mrs. Stutenroch.

Ohio, with a good State food law, has been greatly hampered by the lack of a National law.

In Oklahoma and Indian Territory the people have not even as much protection along this line as cattle have, but unless all signs fail, they will have before long. So far as the committee has heard, Oklahoma is the banner State for the number of letters and petitions favoring a National Pure Food Law, having sent out 1,800.

Oregon has a good new law, whose efficiency has not yet been tried; but if the club women of Portland are fair representatives of the spirit of her citizens, we may expect great results, for we have no more interesting exhibition of civic usefulness than was shown by their demanding and getting market inspection a year ago.

Pennsylvania has a good law, enforced by a fearless Dairy and Food Commission.

Rhode Island not having responded, we find from the Digest of the Food Laws, published by the United States Department of Agriculture, that no provision is made for the enforcement of the food laws, except where local inspectors may have power to act.

In Tennessee, the State Board of Health is authorized to establish a chemical and biological laboratory and to employ expert assistants to enforce the food laws of the State; but owing to lack of appropriations the law cannot be enforced.

In Texas much the same conditions obtain, save that the sum of \$2,000 is allowed the Health Officer by the law. Here again we find that the Legislature (shall we say) forgot to include this item in the appropriation bills, so no real work can be done. A good general food law *failed* in the last Legislature, but a pure food bill for stock passed without question.

Utah has good laws most excellently administered, and one unusual feature, showing the general interest in food control, deserves especial mention. There is in Utah an Association of Merchants and Manufacturers and a number of commercial clubs which employ a chemist to analyze the output of all canning factories in the State, thus insuring purity in the home products. This is a new venture in civic work and should commend itself to every State wishing to establish a high record for commercial honesty.

Vermont has sent no response to inquiries, but, consulting the United States Bulletin, we find that general food laws were enacted by the last meeting of the Legislature. They are to be enforced by the State Board



of Health, whose meager appropriation prevents proper collection of samples to be analyzed, and so defeats the purpose of the law.

Virginia has a new law, administered by the State Department of Agriculture, which is "having an excellent effect in regard to labeling and branding."

Washington has a good law and a Commissioner who says: "If the people want to buy dirt, they can; but they will not be cheated into doing it under false colors."

West Virginia has no provision for enforcing such laws as are on the statute books, but we learn that the public is aroused to the importance of the question and the recent establishment of milk inspection in Wheeling is a step in the right direction.

Wisconsin has a good law and a wide-awake Dairy and Food Commission.

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### CHILD LABOR—A NATIONAL DISGRACE.

This topic was presented at the biennial meeting of the General Federation of Women's Clubs at St. Paul, June, 1906, by Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay of the University of Pennsylvania, and Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, also ex-Commissioner of Education in Porto Rico, who spoke in part as follows:

"If there is any natural or necessary division of labor in the public work of men and women certainly the guardianship of the interests of children will appeal most strongly to women. It may be man's fault rather than woman's that our modern industrial system has laid so heavy a hand on the child. Our mines and coal breakers, our cotton mills and factories, our glass houses, silk mills, messenger and delivery service, street trades and other hazardous occupations for young children have already enlisted one in every twenty-two children throughout the entire country, and if we include all wage-earning child workers, more than one in every six children of the country, or over two million, must be counted. We cannot boast of American opportunities or do ought but hang our heads in shame when we admit these facts.

"We are all responsible, men and women alike, for this horrible condition of affairs. Every section of the country is guilty, every industry is a conspirator in these wrongs done to innocent children. There is a sovereign remedy—*publicity*. The National Committee was organized as a representative body of men and women to ascertain and present the facts. We have done this as best we can with the resources of a private society and we will continue to do it. We now call on you as the organized force of woman's influence in this country, we call on organized labor, on the churches representing the organized religious forces, and finally we call on the Federal Government to assume the responsibility for these wrongs to childhood and to set about forthwith to right them, to make restitution four-fold. *Publicity* on a national scale is the sovereign remedy. What has it not done in

righting the wrongs of insurance mismanagement, in helping us to find a way to control corporate greed, railroad rebates and many other economic ills. Now the singular thing is that we have through a campaign of publicity come to recognize government responsibility even under our peculiar constitutional complications for the finding of a way to deal with these questions effectively. What responsibility does the government, state or nation, assume to-day for the children? Are they not an asset of the nation? Is their physical, industrial, intellectual and moral training not a matter of as much concern to the nation as the breeding of cattle, horses and swine? Do they not represent an economic value of as great concern as the soils, seeds, fisheries, or insect pests of the country? In all these matters the National Government has well organized bureaus of *investigation* and *publicity*. No constitutional provision prohibits the government at Washington from investigating minutely, exhaustively and authoritatively the condition of working children and the numerous questions allied thereto such as the questions of infant mortality, the birth rate, physical degeneracy, orphanage, juvenile delinquency and juvenile courts, desertion and illegitimacy, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, legislation affecting children in the several states and territories and such other facts as have a bearing upon the health, efficiency, character and training of children. The results of such investigations made public by the National Government will not only give our states the necessary basis for wise legislation and wiser administration of child labor laws and other legal provision for childhood but will make such action by the states necessary and inevitable.

"The Providence (R. I.) *Journal* has treated this point most wisely and patriotically when it said: 'While it is easy to recognize the almost self-evident truth that the welfare of children is of vital importance to the country, it is far less easy to find methods of improving their conditions. Congress has no power to enact legislation for the states prohibiting child labor or dealing with the problems of illiteracy, illegitimacy, juvenile crime, children's courts and allied questions. Each state must regulate these affairs for itself. The question, then, is far more complicated and much more delicate than if it could be settled by one law-making body. It partakes of the subtle difficulties common to many of the problems now uppermost in the minds of thinking Americans—it belongs to the state for solution, but it is national both in the interest it arouses and in the danger it threatens.

"In so vital a question, as in almost all the other important issues of the present time, it is natural to think that the means followed to secure relief are of slight importance. Such thinking, however, is dangerous. The Federal Government is constantly being called upon to do what it is the constitutional duty of the states to accomplish. That very habit of ignoring the commonwealth in the pressure of difficulties and applying for a remedy at Washington is potent for mischief. It weakens the power of the state, diminishes the respect of its own citizens for its powers and makes it far less able to govern itself. Thus delegated authority is removed one step further away from the people whence it comes; and how much is lost in the process is a question of no slight moment to American institutions.

Fortunately it seems possible to solve the problem of the protection of children by a method in which the state will lose none of its rights and the government will lend its valuable offices and powerful prestige.

“The national child labor committee, which is conducting the campaign in favor of national legislation in behalf of children, asks simply for the establishment of a children's bureau in the Department of the Interior. The bill now before the Senate seeking this'end grants to that office only the rights of investigation and publicity. These rights, however, if well used, will result in the collection of all the data the public needs to form its opinion; and this opinion can easily find expression in the enlightened state laws. May it not be that in this proposed union of national research and publicity with state autonomy many of the most trying of the great modern evils will be cured? If such should be the fortunate result, good laws would not mean curtailing in the slightest degree the liberty of the several states.’

“We do not want merely statistics which the government now furnishes in part for some of these questions, but we want such illuminating reports on child labor as the Bureau of Corporations has recently furnished about Standard Oil and the Railroads, or the Bureau of Labor furnishes about labor problems. Where is the Children's Bureau in our National Government? It was a woman's happy suggestion a few years ago—from Miss Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement in New York—that we should have a National Children's Bureau—and the National Child Labor Committee has willingly adopted the suggestion and a bill is now pending in Congress to create such a Bureau. It will become a law, I believe, only if you women want it earnestly enough to work for it. You have in your clubs endorsed the Crane bill to establish the bureau, but this will not be enough to get it. You must endorse it over and over again, write personally over and over again to your Senators and Representatives, make a point of seeing them about it when they return home from Washington. Write “*Children's Bureau*” on your program for work and discussion next fall in every club here represented, and when the next session of Congress assembles in December we will have a National Children's Bureau, and half the battle against child labor will be won.”

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### CHILD LABOR IN BELGIUM.

By FRANCIS H. McLEAN in Collaboration With Professor Emile Waxweiler of Brussels. A report prepared for the National Consumers' League.

The history of the regulation of child labor in Belgium presents to us a curiously mixed and confusing development. This is because the standards set by the law of December 13, 1880, which still is the chief law on the subject, were not high and also because that statute opened the way for letting down the bars in some directions, and in building the fences higher in other

directions, through administrative decrees. The excellencies and defects of the system of continental administrative law systems are well illustrated in this sphere of legislative activity. It may sound paradoxical but it seems to be true, that administrative bodies are likely to be both strict and lenient whenever there is left to them the detailed interpretation of a law in which they are permitted to make concessions under some circumstances and to make the restrictions severer than in the original law under other circumstances. The law of December 13, 1889, permitted the administration to limit or entirely forbid the employment of children under the protected age (16) as well as women under age of 21, in occupations which might thereafter be determined upon as being dangerous for them or beyond their strength. On the other hand in industries which might be injuriously affected by interruptions at certain periods, the administration could arrange for excepting such industries from the operations of the law, prohibiting night and Sunday work. These two provisions contain the keynote of the development since 1889.

While the law of 1889 was by no means behind the times at the period of its enactment, as we go over the provisions you will readily perceive that, it is archaic now even when interpreted in the light of the administrative decrees which have followed. After all, basic standards must be set by legislation, administrative interpretations cannot entirely reconstruct. The development in Belgium plainly indicates the need of a new law, based upon the progress of thought during the last decade. France and Belgium, as would naturally be expected, have proceeded along somewhat similar lines of progress in this field, but there has been later legislation in France which marks an advance over the position now occupied by Belgium.

*The Law of December 13, 1889.*

Turning to the law of December 13, 1889, we find employment of children under 12 prohibited and the employment of children under 16 and women under 21 thus regulated:

1. Not more than 12 hours' work per day in any industry and in a number as indicated below there is restriction to from 6 to 11 hours, the greater number of such special provisions however limiting to 10 hours.
2. Not more than six days' labor per week, excepting in industries indicated below.
3. No work between 9 P. M. and 5 A. M. This also subject to exceptions.
4. Employment in unhealthy or dangerous occupations prohibited in some cases, strictly regulated in others.

*Special Limitations on Hours of Labor for Women and Children.*

By a number of administrative decrees made by authority of the Law of December 13, 1889, the following special limitations on hours of labor in particular industries have been made:

Industry	For	Limitation of hours of labor	Duration of periods of rest
Spinning and weaving of flax, cotton and hemp	Children (14 & over)	11½	1½
Ditto	Women to age 21	6	1½
Brick & Tile making, etc	Children 12 & 13 yrs.	12	If 8-12 hours' work, 1½ hours. If 6-8 hours' work, 1 hr.
	All protected by law		
Clothing industries, hosiery, lace, embroidery, braid, etc.	Ditto	11	1½
Mechanical construction work on large scale (machines, locomotives, etc.)...	Children 14-16	11	1
	Women to 21		
Mechanical construction work on large scale (machines, locomotives, etc.)...	All protected by law	11½	1½
Woolen manufacturing	Children 12-14	10	1
Preserving of fish...	All protected by law	11	If work is over 8 hours, 1½ hours. If from 6-8 hours, 1 hour.
Subterranean work in mines of ore.....	Women 16-21	11	½ of time of work
Ditto	Girls 12-16	Prohibited	
Ditto	Boys 12-14	4	Ditto
Ditto	Boys 14-16	10½	Ditto
Manufacturing of sugar	All protected by law	10½	1½
Chemical matches...	Ditto	10½	1½
Manufacturing of glass windows in hollowed ovens and ovens for pitchers.	Ditto	10½	1½
Manufacture of coke	Ditto	10½	1½
Manufacture of by-products of coke..	Ditto	10½	1½
Manufacture of charcoal	Ditto	10½	1½
			3 rests: 1 of 20 min. in morning; 1 hr. at noon, and 20 min. in afternoon.
Glass works.....	All protected	10	
Printing of newspapers	Ditto	10	1½
Industrial arts, including lithographing, photographing, polishing metals, etc	Ditto	10	1½
Manufacture of paper	Children 14-16 and Women 16-21	10½	1½
Ditto	Children 12-14	6	1½
Manufacture of tobacco and cigars..	Children 14-16 and Women 16-21	10	1½
Ditto	Children 12-14	6	1½
Manufacture of pottery, crockery and earthenware	All protected by law	10	1½
Manufacture of fire-proof products	Ditto	10	1½
Manufacture of looking glasses.....	Ditto	10	1½
Building trades.....	Children	8 in Dec., Jan, and Feb. 10 during remainder of year	1½
Manufacture of zinc.	Children 14-16	10	1½
Ditto	Women 16-21	5	1
	Children 12-14		
Manufacture of small mechanical instruments	Children 14-16	Varying from 10-11 in different particularized industries	1½
Ditto	Women 16-21		1½
Ditto	Children 12-14	10	
Surface work around mines	All protected by law	10	1½

The table as arranged above is certainly a very curious one. It is quite evident that the administrative decrees have been fashioned in an attempt to further the interests of the child and at the same time to maintain existing routines as far as possible in the different industries. They are indeed interesting as marking the progress of events in Belgium since the law of 1889, limited as the standards were of the original law.

*Night Work.*

While the administrative decrees show progress in cutting down the hours of labor in many important industries, it is unfortunately true that retrogression is indicated in their conceding night work in certain industries where employers have apparently claimed that their routines and systems cannot be changed to meet new conditions.

For purposes of comparison it will be well to recall that in France, Belgium's neighbor, night employment for children as a customary thing is only permitted in mills where "fire burns continually." Here only for male children. In a few other industries such as the making of butter, ready-made clothing, toys, the preserving of fruit and fish, overtime work to 11 at night may be permitted during busy seasons and not for more than 60 days in any one year. In Belgium night work is permitted during the whole year in the following industries:

1. Manufacture of paper — for boys between 14 and 16.
2. Manufacture of sugar — for children between 14 and 16 and young women between 16 and 21.
3. Manufacture of looking glasses — for boys between 14 and 16 at the "flowing" of the glass.
4. Manufacture of zinc — for boys between 14 and 16.
5. Manufacture of ordinary glass products — for children between 14 and 16, and young women to 21.
6. Manufacture of enamel — for boys between 14 and 16.
7. Manufacture of window glass in hollowed ovens — for children between 14 and 16, and young women to 21.
8. Mining underground — for boys 14 to 16.
9. Surface work around mines — for women 16 to 21, sometimes limited to midnight.

Besides these special privileges for night work to be taken advantage of at any time, preservers of fish may employ children between 14 and 16 and young women between 16 and 21, up to 12 at night for not over 30 days in any one year. No such child or woman is to work more than 12 hours in any 24.

It is to be hoped that the pendulum has swung its length in this matter of special privileges and that from now on there will be a gradual reduction in the amount of night work permitted to minors.

*Sunday Work.*

Beautifully archaic and quaint are certain special administrative regulations permitting Sunday work in certain industries, work which is apparently considered necessary. The following list shows in what factories a certain amount of work every other Sunday may be permitted in connection with some manufacturing process:

1. Manufacture of looking glasses—boys between 14 and 16 for not over 6 hours with one hour of rest.

2. Manufacture of ordinary glass products—children between 14 and 16 for 6 hours with half hour of rest.

3. Manufacture of window glass in hollowed ovens and ovens for pitchers—children between 14 and 16 and young women 16 to 21.

Strangely enough the decree is silent on any limitation of hours beyond the ordinary limitation for week days.

4. Manufacture of coke—boys between 14 and 16 for 8 hours with one hour of rest.

But the state having thus permitted some of its wards to enter workshops on Sundays is not forgetful of its responsibilities, but rises to the occasion by requiring that in addition to the periods of rest indicated above, each person so employed shall be given opportunity to attend to his religious worship. That is simply delicious,—the very apotheosis of compromise is here reached—industrialism is satisfied—the needs of the soul are attended to, excepting in one case. The decree regarding the manufacture of window glass makes no provision of this sort. The concession here to industrialism appears to be complete.

It is striking indeed that the trail of the glass dragon seems to be as much in evidence in Belgium as in the United States. This despite very radical differences in industrial processes.

*Interdicted Occupations.*

There are 20 industries in which the employment of women and girls under the age of 21 and of boys under the age of 16 is absolutely prohibited. In France the number is 47. Of our 20, 15 have to do with the manufacture of chemicals as against 32 for France. The other five bar the workers classed above from rooms of dissection, depots of animal waste and factories making other products out of animal waste, menageries and workshops making use of hog bristles.

Forty-four occupations are forbidden for children under 16 though women may work in them. In comparison France only has a list of 10. The chemical group heads the list with a total of 23, thus evening upon the two groups in the two nations. The other prohibitions refer to the following: slaughter houses, gut works, establishments for the flaying and cutting up of horses, the preparation of old hides, manufacture of tar packing for vessels, utilization of kitchen waste, utilization of the entrails of

animals, the development of electric power where accumulators are charged for the production of light and use of power at a distance, manufacture of packing tar oil, quicksilvering of mirrors, oil distillations (6 forms concerned), the salting and smoking of fish, utilization of blood of animals, salting of meats, application of varnish paints, polishes, etc., manufacture of varnish.

As in France there is a long list of industries in which employment is forbidden in certain processes only. Only that while in France, in 34 out of a total of 94, women of any age also are barred out; in Belgium there are but three industries (out of 92) in which this is the case and the prohibitions then only extend to women under 21 years of age. Let us tabulate these three and find just where women and children are excluded:

1. Manufacture of chemical matches—No women or girls under 21 and no boys under 16 to be employed where the paste is made or where the matches are steeped in phosphorus. Also no child under 14 to be employed where the cases are filled.

2. India Rubber—No one under 16 to be employed. The work of women between 16 and 21 to be limited to five hours per day.

3. Taking off of hides of hares and rabbits—No women under 21 and no children under 16 to be employed where chemicals are used.

The next group of interdictions prohibits employment of children under

16. Classifying roughly by nature of occupation we develop this table:

Manufacture or use of chemicals.....	6
Processes with metals.....	4
Processes with stone and other minerals (excluding metals) .....	3
Processes with animal products.....	13
Processes with vegetable substances.....	3
Miscellaneous and composite.....	4
	<hr/>

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The third series of regulations prohibit the employment of children under 14.

A table, similar to the one just given, yields this classification:

Processes with metals.....	9
Processes with stone and other mineral substances (excluding metals) .....	2
Processes with animal products.....	4
Processes with vegetable substances.....	5
Miscellaneous and composite.....	6
	<hr/>

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*Illustrations of Prohibitions.*

Space forbids the presentation here of all the industries and processes affected by these prohibitions, but a few taken out of the list are herewith given.

(a) Prohibition of employment of children under 16.

INDUSTRY.	PROCESSES COVERED BY PROHIBITION.
1. Manufacture of explosive products.	All processes in the workshops.
2. Refining of precious metals.	Where acids are used.
3. Saw mills.	Where dangerous tools are used.
4. Manufacture of liquors.	Where distillation is effected.
5. Silver plating and gilding.	Galvanization and gilding.
6. Manufacture of cement.	Pounding, grinding and sifting where the dust evolved is not drawn out of the shops by some mechanical device.
7. Depots of rags.	Practically a complete elimination of child labor.
8. Manufacture of brushes on a large scale.	Where dust is disengaged and gathers.
9. Manufacture of oil from grease.	Where heated to high temperature.
10. Washing or bleaching of sponges.	Where fetid odors are thrown out by gelatinous animal matter.

(b) Prohibition of employment of children under 14.

1. Galvanization of iron.	Where galvanization is effected.
2. Manufacture of hemp, flax and analogous substances.	Where dust is freely evolved and is not cleared away by some mechanical process.
3. Breweries.	Where distillation occurs.
4. Plating of metals on a large scale.	Scraping and plating.
5. Manufacture of porcelain.	Where dust is freely evolved.

*Other General Provisions of the Law of December 13, 1889.*

The word factory is not accurately defined in the law but as in France there is expressly excepted from its regulations all domestic workshops where members of the respective families only are employed, when the industries in such workshops are not classed as dangerous or unhealthful and when boilers and mechanical motors are not used in them.

Women may not be employed during the four weeks after child-birth.

A fine of from 26 to 100 francs may be imposed upon conviction for a violation of any provision of the law but where conviction covers the illegal employment of a number of persons the total fine shall not exceed 1,000 francs. A second conviction means the doubling of this amount.

A fine of from 1 to 25 francs may be imposed upon a parent or guardian for the illegal employment of a child.

#### *Enforcement of the Law.*

The enforcement of the law is carried out by a small corps of mining engineers and factory inspectors subordinate to the Minister of Industry and Labor. There are a few physicians on the staff and also a few women; but there have been very bitter comments on the smallness of the inspection corps and various attempts have been made to enlarge it, so far without avail.

#### *No Educational Tests.*

There is no compulsory education law in Belgium and consequently a child is not required to attain to a minimum degree of culture before being allowed to work. The age limit is the only limit. A keen observer states that most of the children of poor parents go to work just as soon as it is possible. He also says that the education of the child before his working days is very poor and incomplete. In this direction it is certain that Belgium has by no means reached the standards which prevail in France.

#### *A Case of Arrested Development.*

Despite the progress made in reducing slightly the hours of labor in certain industries, which has been commented on above, it is certain that the history of the administration of the child labor law in Belgium is not one of unmixed progress. It is true that the lists of forbidden occupations for children are large but on the other hand retrogression for original standards is plainly indicated by the extension of night and "every other Sunday work." Then again if we compare Belgium and France, which has so well specialized in excluding children from certain industries, we at once observe the inferiority of the former, which may be graphically illustrated by the following table.

Nation	Industries and Processes in which employment of women and children is prohibited	Employment of Children between 16 & 18	Employment of Children between 14 & 16	Employment of Children between 12 & 14
France	81	138	67	167
Belgium	23	23	56	82
		(girls only)		

It should be remembered that this table is a progressive one, each class, as one reads from left to right, including the industries counted in the pre-

ceding classes. One glance suffices to indicate how far Belgium falls behind. It is perhaps well to again remind ourselves that in both France and Belgium the original agitation for the abolition of child labor took the form not of making rigid and high age requirements but of barring out children from certain industries which were emphatically dangerous to their health. But the whole trend of the movement in France plainly indicates that there has been an infusion of other ideas and France is slowly working up to the higher standards in the direction of age requirements, while at the same time far outdistancing other countries in the number of its prohibitions which protect children up to 18 years even. Belgium has let down the bars somewhat since the Law of 1889 and it remains to be seen just what will be the administrative history of the next few years. The period of what looks like disastrous compromise is not over.

#### *A Repeated Lesson.*

Nevertheless Belgium repeats the lesson which France taught. Backward indeed on age, educational and night work limitations, it again points out to us the value existing in continental systems of administration and administrative decrees in barring children from many particular industries. Though these systems of prohibitions were born out of a spirit of compromise, still it is a question if when we have established our fixed standards in the United States, we shall not turn to them for suggestions as to further specific prohibitions. There is need yet for the protection which specific prohibitions will give to boys between 16 and 18 and young women to 21 as well as to children between 14 and 16 so long as their employment is legal.

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### THE RELIEF OF THE POOR IN ITALY.

BY DR. G. M. PALLICCIA, PERUGIA, ITALY.

In those States of Europe where the Reformation took root, there manifested itself once more, though under another aspect, the pagan system of public charity, the obligation of the State to succor the needy. Italy, remaining Catholic, still considered charity as a duty resulting from the tie of fraternity amongst all men, a duty which did not belong to the Government, but to the more fortunate members of society. Legacies and foundations "*ad pias causas*," in the most varied forms,—small doles, alms-houses, medical relief at home or in hospitals, *crèches* and infant asylums multiplied, always more or less associated with religious worship. These hybrid institutions, which were something between public, private, and ecclesiastical charities, began from the eighteenth century to be regarded with disapproval in some Italian States, which, notwithstanding the obstacles raised by the Church, tried to bring these "*Opere Pie*" under the control of the State. At the same time the idea of public charity began to make progress. Count

Cavour wrote in 1835 a valuable discussion on the voluminous Report of the Commission appointed in 1832 "to make diligent and full enquiry into the practical operation of the laws for the relief of the poor in England and Wales," showing the effects which the proposed reforms would have. In his speech made in Parliament on the 17th of February, 1851, he did not hesitate to declare: "I believe that there exists an immense prejudice against public charity, but nevertheless one can predict that every society arrived at a certain stage of development must adopt such a policy. I believe also that experience will show in the not far future that public charity, well administered, under prudent regulations, may produce immense benefits without having those fatal consequences which are so much feared."

But the first legislative reforms in charitable administration took place at an epoch in which statesmen were imbued with the doctrines of the orthodox philanthropy; and had a deficient knowledge of the condition of the poorer classes of the new Kingdom, an ignorance which became absolute south of Tuscany. All this hindered the Government from having a clear vision of what to do. Thus the varied forms of public beneficence were regulated by laws which were diverse and disconnected, if not absolutely contradictory.

Since Italians themselves find it difficult to comprehend the organization of public beneficence in their own country, it is by no means easy to present a complete and exact abstract of that very intricate system, which only differs essentially from those of England and France. The reforms hitherto carried out have to a great extent succeeded (1) in regulating the operation of the "Opere Pie," which had become sources of waste and extravagance; and (2) in "wrenching from the hands of faithless and covetous administrators the patrimony of the poor," as Minister Crispi declared on the 29th of April, 1890, in the Senate. On the other hand, they have not given to Italy an organic body of legislative provisions on this delicate and difficult subject.

The principal reform on which is based a great part of the actual system was effected in 1890. It was sought not only to better the administration of the "Opere Pie," but also to make charity as scientific as possible.

Of the "Opere Pie," properly so called, in 1890, there were in Italy 21,819 with a capital fund of about 2,000 millions of lire, which gave an actual income of 90 millions (which would have been about 100 millions if better administered). Of this income at least 40 millions were absorbed by charges on estates and expenses of administration, while of the 50 remaining millions the smaller part was devoted to works of beneficence, the larger being absorbed by expenditures for religious worship, which in Sicily reached 19 per cent., in the Neapolitan Provinces 31 per cent., and in Abruzzi 36 per cent. Some of the "Opere Pie" were better administered, though they did not yield the good results which they ought to have done in an enlightened country. In one of these charitable societies, which was said to be admirably managed and intended to bring up girls to household duties, the Hon. Villari found that, amongst more than one thousand pupils between eight to eighteen years of age, only 10 per cent. were able with difficulty to read and write.

Out of 21,819 beneficent institutions hardly a thousand had an endowment sufficient to pay their expenses. Of the others, 10,700 had a yearly income inferior to 500 lire (\$100), and 4,200 had less than \$300.

What benefit could these 14,900 institutions render to humanity if they could not even maintain themselves? Furthermore, there existed 4,215 "Opere Pie" with an endowment of 180 millions of lire, which yielded a yearly income of 10 millions. The great majority of these, acting on the principle of giving charity to whoever asked it, were becoming most injurious by promoting idleness and mendicancy.

Professional beggars grew and multiplied, and, in the communes where there were various charitable institutions, they availed themselves of all. In Venice, according to statistics made by the late Professor Cecchetti, one-third of the population was on the poor register. There were many beggars who had even taken a chair in Piazza San Marco in order to obtain charity in the most comfortable way possible. Although they paid more for the post than they would have done had they rented a shop, they, however, preferred this way of getting a livelihood, which was much easier than working all day, and they were sure of leaving a good fortune at their death. It was absolutely necessary, therefore, to obtain reforms in the administration: first, economy in the management; secondly, the impossibility of abusing public charity; thirdly, the power of watching over and controlling all money bequeathed for charitable purposes. It was decided to substitute the Congregation of Charity (Congregazione di Carità) for the old statutory representation in the administration of the "Opere Pie." It is an executive committee of the public charity of the entire commune, existing in every commune, even if it has no funds to administer. The membership varies from four to twelve in proportion to the population of the commune, besides a president. The board is elected by the municipal council. Its principal duties are: (1) to administer and expend the moneys left for the poor generally, and not to specific institutions; (2) to regulate the institutions which have not, or cannot have, individual administrative bodies, and to temporarily control those institutions whose administrative bodies, by a royal decree, are dissolved in consequence of non-observance of the laws; (3) to promote the administration and judicial provisions for the assistance and protection of orphans and foundlings, of poor blind and deaf mutes, and assume temporarily their superintendence in cases of urgency.

The law of July 17th, 1890, declared that there should be concentrated under the management of the Congregation of Charity: (1) the institutions not having a yearly income exceeding five thousand lire (\$1,000), and which existed in a commune with less than ten thousand inhabitants; (2) all the eleemosynary and charitable institutions. In order to abolish charity in the old sense (which consisted in distributing money and soup at the doors of convents), the method of distributing relief was reorganized by devoting the incomes to some beneficence which was most in harmony with the nature of the institution and the intentions of the founder, following thus the English theory of the "cy-pres."

Besides these reforms, there has been made an entire change in the object

of many "Opere Pie." There existed in Italy 12,684 *confraternite* (associations of the faithful, having for their scope religious worship as well as charity, the majority being approved by the Bishop or the Pope), of which 9,464 had an endowment of their own amounting to 302,167,205 lire. The others were supported by begging and the contributions of the Associates. This endowment produced an income of hardly nine millions. Only 1,900,000 lire were spent in charity, the rest was spent on masses, lights, processions, fire-works, and similar matters. Several institutions had ceased to promote the objects for which they were created, or had purposes no longer corresponding to any public need. Others had become superfluous because their objects were in different ways fully provided for. It is enough to mention that in 1890 in two communes, Canepina (near Rome) and Positano (near Salerno), there still existed associations which had for their object ransoming slaves from the Turks; there being no more slaves to ransom, the Associates did as they pleased with the income. To change the will of the founder, which was called "constans et perpetua voluntas," to divert the funds left by him to other objects on the ground that the original intention had become useless and obsolete, met with great opposition in Parliament, some members declaring the State had not the right to despoil institutions not created but only recognized by it, just as it was not lawful to despoil individual citizens because they had become old and infirm. The opposition became even more serious when it was proposed to entrust such a faculty to the executive power. But after a great debate, in which reference was made to the English method of dealing with obsolete charities, the proposal was approved. Thus Parliament entrusted the executive power with the faculty of transforming not only the true and proper "Opere Pie" so as to divert them to a new charitable object of superior utility to the preceding one, but also other institutions not strictly charitable, such as endowments for monasteries, hospices for catechumenes, pilgrims and hermits, and similar institutions not founded for civil or social objects, fraternities and brotherhoods, "Opere Pie" of religious worship, excluding those corresponding to some real need of the population.

All these reforms, however, did not place public charity on a systematic basis. In Italy there is no Poor Law, and no public almshouses. The public system is not always homogeneous, but is complicated by various existing laws, according to which the communes and the provinces are obliged to grant certain subsidies. The function of public assistance being confided to local bodies, it necessarily follows that both public charity and the expending of alms assume a territorial character; and the funds in a given commune cannot be expended, as a rule, in favor of a poor individual belonging to another commune. Thus the communes or the provinces, or the charitable institutions must be repaid the money expended upon a poor individual not belonging to them. In order to identify the commune to which the poor belong, the law of July, 1890, substituted for the system of civil domicile that of the "domicile of succor." The recipient must have lived for more than five years in one commune without notable interruptions; and failing that, must establish the fact of birth, even if illegitimate, in the commune.

But what persons in Italy have the right to assistance, and by what institutions and authorities is it granted? There are three categories in which one may classify the destitute: (1) those who have not the will to work; (2) those who have not the means, and who, despite good-will, remain unemployed; (3) those who have not the power to work,— children, old people, the infirm and invalids. It is only to these last that the law gives the right to assistance, except in very urgent cases in which the Congregations of Charity, if they have the means, ought to succor the poor to whatever commune they belong, and without any right to be reimbursed. Thus the State does not guarantee subsistence to the unemployed, and does not provide employment for able-bodied persons. These, in Italy, are provided for by the institutions of private charity, which have always been very successful.

Thus, public assistance is guaranteed only to destitute persons who have not the power to work. The different and confused provisions of the laws may, therefore, be reduced to the following heads: (1) Each commune is bound to provide for the medical assistance of the poor both within and without their homes, and according to the law of 1904 to give them also medicines, if these are not provided by special charitable institutions. The list of the poor in each commune is compiled every year by the municipal "Junta." (2) Each commune is obliged to reimburse to the hospitals the expenses of the sick poor who have acquired the "domicile of assistance," but it can be recovered by the local Congregation of Charity or other institutes of beneficence which are liable to this obligation, except cases in which the statutes of the hospital exclude the right of being repaid. (3) The provinces are obliged to maintain the insane poor belonging to them in asylums. (4) The province and the commune together are bound to maintain foundlings. (5) The Congregation of Charity in each commune is obliged to fulfill in favor of the poor all these services we have already mentioned. (6) The hospitals and poor-houses are obliged to assist in urgent cases, although the poor person has not the "domicile of succor" in the commune. (7) Persons recognized by the local police authorities as being unable to work and being without means or relations bound to assist them, are by the same authority placed in a local poor-house, or failing that, in some other asylum. The expense for their maintenance is charged to the poor-house if financially able. But if the funds are insufficient, all or part of the expense will be charged to the commune of origin; and where the same cannot provide for them without imposing new taxes, it will be charged to the State. This is the only case in which the State, however subsidiarily, intervenes to meet expenditure on public charity.

In recent years a feeling of horror has grown up in Italy against the mischievous growth of begging. "I consider it a moral necessity," said Signor Crispi, the Prime Minister, in the Chamber of Deputies in 1888, "to proclaim loudly the principle that begging is unlawful also amongst us, and no longer can mendicancy be considered as authorized."

In 1888 it was enacted that not only everyone able to work, if caught in the act of begging, should be arrested and punished, but also those who, not having informed the police authorities that they were unable to work, were

found begging in the public streets. Unfortunately, this evil could not be entirely destroyed, but, after the powerful blows administered, it is beginning to disappear. And it would perish more quickly if the foreigners, especially English and Americans, who come to Italy, and who have no real knowledge of the true condition of the people, were not so ready to give their alms to the first beggar who demands it; not knowing that the really poor in Italy are reluctant to lower themselves by asking for money, and that, on the contrary, they do their best to earn their bread, if their physical powers enable them to do so; and if unable to work they seek some poor-house in which they will be welcomed.



## NOTES ON MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

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# Recent Inspection of Meat Supply

## A Symposium

- Chicago.**—HUGO S. GROSSER, City Statistician, Chicago, Ill.  
**New York.**—THOMAS DARLINGTON, M. D., Commissioner Department of Health, New York City.  
**Cincinnati.**—MAX B. MAY, and JOSEPH M. GOOD, V. S. M. D., Chief Meat Inspector, Cincinnati, Ohio.  
**New Orleans.**—DR. QUITMAN KOHNKE, City Health Officer, New Orleans, La.  
**Detroit.**—DELOS F. WILCOX, Ph. D., Secretary Detroit Municipal League.  
**Milwaukee.**—JOHN A. BUTLER, Milwaukee, Wis.  
**Washington, D. C.**—MURRAY GALT MOTTER, Chief Inspector and Deputy Health Officer, District of Columbia.  
**Providence.**—FRANK E. LAKEY, Providence, R. I.
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### CHICAGO

By HUGO S. GROSSER, City Statistician, Chicago, Ill.

Practically all meat consumed in Chicago comes from the large slaughter houses, commonly called the packing houses; but a small percentage comes from smaller establishments, whose trade is almost entirely local. There is, too, some meat consumed in Chicago which is slaughtered at outside points in Illinois, but the quantity is small. Broadly speaking, the great houses of Armour, Swift, Morris, Libby-McNeal & Libby, Schwartzschilds & Sulzburger, Cudahy and the National are the butchers and meat market men of Chicago. The bulk of the meat, animals, hogs, cattle, calves and sheep which come to the Chicago market are grown and fattened on Western prairies. A good many of what are known as ranch cattle, or cattle which are raised and fitted for market entirely on the immense ranges and ranches of the far west and southwest, Texas and New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, Western Kansas, Wyoming, Idaho and Montana and the Dakotas, find their way to the Chicago market, although there are several meat slaughtering and packing points nearer to the prairies where they are grown.

These, however, constitute by no means the largest part of the cattle

supply of Chicago. The fine beef cattle and the choice hogs come largely from the corn growing districts in Illinois and Iowa and parts of Minnesota, Wisconsin and Indiana. Hogs, of course, are usually bred in the locality in which they are fattened. Very many of the prime beef cattle, however, are western born and bred and are sent from the grass ranges to the corn belt for quick fattening and finishing for market. Of course, considering the healthfulness of the Chicago meat supply, the source of the animal supply is an important point, for the diseases to which cattle and hogs are subject are largely dependent upon the locality from which the animals come.

For instance, tuberculosis is very rare in the stock that is raised and fattened on ranches and farms where there is plenty of room to run out of doors. A small percentage of beef animals come from the dairy districts contiguous to Chicago. These are the class of cattle commonly denominated as "canners," consisting mostly of cows, although these do not in themselves constitute anything like a majority of the stock used for canning purposes. A very great proportion of the beef animals used for canning are the western beef animals, which come to market in fair condition, and healthy, but not fat, as fat meat is not desirable for canning purposes. Ninety per cent of the cases of tuberculosis found among beef animals are found among the cattle which come from the dairy district, and particularly among cows; but this ninety per cent is an almost imperceptible part of the total number of animals slaughtered in Chicago.

This question of diseased animals has been over-emphasized in much of the recent discussion of the meat question throughout the country. The percentage of diseased animals, that is animals suffering from diseases of any kind, which the authorities regard as rendering the meat unwholesome, is very small. In cattle, the condemnations run from three-fourths of one per cent to one per cent; in hogs, the condemnations run about one-fourth of one per cent. Thus the percentage of diseased animals being very small in the first instance, the provisions for inspection are such as to make it practically impossible that diseased meat from these animals should reach the public.

The slaughtering houses and packing houses in Chicago can hardly be considered ideal establishments; yet they certainly are not the unmitigated adjuncts of an inferno, as one might infer from some of the things said and printed about them. In character of construction, appointments, and so forth, they are nothing like what they would be if they were to be built new today. In these respects they are probably not equal to newer plants in many other cities, particularly states further west which have come into prominence as packing centers only within a comparatively few years. The meat packing industry as we know it today, is comparatively young. It was inaugurated at Chicago thirty-five years ago. Its growth has been phenomenal. The firms which dominate the trade now were in the trade from the beginning. Their resources particularly in those days were tied up in their business. When their houses were built it was impossible to figure with the stupendous growth that the industry has experienced, and consequently a great deal of patch work was done, and the various buildings

and apartments are not co-ordinated as they would be in a plant newly built as an entirety. The packer's business was booming to such an extent that he hesitated to close down a part of his plant long enough to erect an entirely new plant. Instead, he tried to remodel and adjust it by building additions and supplementary buildings. The consequence has been that the Chicago packing houses, with many of the buildings at least twenty years old, and some of them older, are deficient in the application of up-to-date ideas in sanitation, ventilation, and so forth; but while these buildings in which the slaughtering and meat-packing is carried on are old and deficient in these points, it cannot be said that they are kept in an unspeakably filthy condition. They have not been made as attractive as they could have been made by means of more liberal amounts of paint and whitewash. The owners of them have utterly neglected the æsthetics of the building. In the rush of business, they have not given much attention to appearances. But it must be admitted that they are reasonably clean when looked upon from the proper viewpoint. Dirt that accumulates in any slaughter or meat packing establishment is, of necessity, largely composed of animal matter, blood, fat, grease and scraps of meat. Animal matter left about to accumulate in cracks, corners and crevices or on the floor will inevitably putrefy and produce a stench that cannot be confused with any other smell ordinarily denominated a packing house smell; the absence of such a stench from practically all Chicago establishments must be taken as an evidence that while woodwork and the like becomes stained and discolored and may not look clean, yet in fact it must be reasonably clean or it would give off an unendurable stench that would make living within miles of these packing houses impossible.

In the past few years, long before the recent agitation was thought of, there has been a noticeable improvement throughout these establishments. The use of asphalt, concrete, brick and other impervious substances for floors in killing and meat handling departments, has been coming rapidly into vogue. As a reason why such materials were not used sooner, the packers claim that they have had some difficulty in experimenting with asphalt and concrete, and finding the exact composition that would not suffer disintegration and deterioration from the animal acids coming in contact with it. For some years, and especially now more than ever, all of the large packing houses have been and are spending large amounts of money in making these improvements.

As Chicago is, generally speaking, the main source of meat supply for nearly the entire country, it is somewhat difficult to differentiate materially between the inspection of the local meat supply and the inspection for the interstate and foreign trade as furnished by the federal government, as well as the local authorities. The large packing houses have had government inspection since it was inaugurated, and have always favored it, simply because they found it a material advantage in their foreign trade to be able to say that their meats were inspected under the direction of the national government. The regulations of this national inspection applied to all meats handled in any house where it was once established.

Since 1891, government inspection includes the examination of the live animals before slaughter, and of the carcasses at the time of slaughter. And it is, of course, impossible to distinguish between a carcass that is intended for consumption in Chicago and a carcass intended for shipment to Boston, New York, San Francisco, or shipment abroad. In fact, parts of one carcass might be used in Chicago and other parts go abroad. Therefore, the whole animal has to be inspected. On this point there has been much misinformation. It is frequently believed that government inspection applies only to meats intended for export. As a matter of fact, with a single exception, the microscopic examination for trichinæ in pork going to Germany, all animals killed in Chicago plants have been subjected to exactly the same inspection, whether they are intended for local, interstate or export trade. No house having government inspection can, under the law, purchase animal products of any kind from an establishment that is without government inspection, and therefore practically all the slaughtering establishments are under the same regulation, as otherwise they would be forced out of business as they could not meet competition without getting something for their by-products. Thus, there have never been more than three or four small slaughtering establishments in the city of Chicago that were operated without the restriction of government inspection.

It is claimed by the Department of Agriculture that inspection regulations in this country as applied in Chicago are so much more stringent than the regulations which obtain in any other country on earth. By the fact that pathologists, bacteriologists and veterinarians of established reputation, such as Dr. W. A. Evans and Dr. Maximilian Herzog of Chicago, Dr. M. P. Ravenel of Pittsburgh, A. P. Peters of Nebraska, Dr. M. H. Reynolds of Minnesota, Dr. Douglas Dalrymple of Louisiana, Prof. Wm. H. Welsh of Johns Hopkins University, and others, support this contention, it seems to be well established that many animals are condemned and destroyed in Chicago and other American cities which in many other countries would be passed for food.

The government inspectors who have charge of this work in Chicago are all trained veterinarians. The manner in which they perform their duty is substantially as follows:

Hogs, after being killed and bled and put through the scalding tank and through a scraping machine that removes most of the hair and bristles, pass through the hands of the butcher who severs the head through the backbone, but leaves it attached to the body by one side of the neck. From this head-cutter the hog passes under the hands of a government inspector, who examines the glands and organs of the throat and neck for evidences of disease. This examination is especially important; as it is a matter of record that ninety-five per cent of the hogs condemned are detected by this first inspection. After passing through other processes connected with the dressing of the animal, the hog is disemboweled under the eye of a second inspector. This inspector's duty is to examine the viscera — heart, lungs, intestines, etc. — for signs of infection. Neither of these inspectors makes a final examination, they simply look for conditions that

are suspected. Being trained veterinarians, they detect any evidence of an abnormal condition in the neck glands and organs or in the viscera of a hog as quickly as the ordinary man would detect an abnormality on the countenance of a friend. When either of these inspectors finds a sign of disease, he seals upon the carcass a tag, marking it as suspected. All carcasses not tagged are passed, of course, for food.

The inspected carcasses are separated from the others and are segregated. Then a third inspector, who is the chief in that establishment, makes a final examination to determine whether the evidences of disease discovered by either of the other two inspectors are of a character to make the carcass unfit for food. If the infection has been slight or merely local, or has been practically cured by nature, leaving a sign of infection that is really nothing more than a scar on the internal organs, the carcasses pass for food. If it is considered in any way unfit, and the regulations covering the conditions that make it unfit are very stringent, it is cut up and destroyed under the personal supervision and direction of this third inspector.

The destruction is accomplished in this way: The carcass is chopped up under the eye of the inspector, and is by him conducted to the rendering tank. He seals the bottom of that tank with a Government seal. The condemned meat is then thrown in at the top, and the top is likewise sealed with a Government seal. Then the steam is turned on, and this meat, mixed with refuse of various kinds that would make the product of the tank absolutely unfit for food and impossible to use as food, is left to cook at a temperature of 225 degrees for not less than four hours. The condemned meat is thus absolutely destroyed.

The method of inspecting beef animals is substantially the same as in the case of hogs, with the difference that it has been found by practice necessary to examine only the viscera of cattle; the examination of the neck and throat glands is dispensed with. On the cattle killing floor, the Government inspector follows the butcher who does the disemboweling, and as the animal's abdomen is opened, he examines for signs of disease, tags suspected carcasses, and has them segregated for further examination, and final disposition by the chief inspector.

When suspected animal carcasses are set aside, they go to a retaining room, upon which there is a government lock, and the government inspector has the only key to that lock. Therefore, such suspected carcasses could not be abstracted and sent out to the public as food, even though a packer were so conscienceless as to attempt it, without collusion with the government inspection, and there has never been any evidence in Chicago of such collusion.

These inspectors are absolutely supreme under their authority from the Department of Agriculture, and no packer or slaughterer dares to interfere with them in the discharge of their duties. They are changed from house to house every few weeks. In starting the day's killing, no packer knows what inspector or inspectors will be assigned to his establishment for that day. If the packer does not give these inspectors every facility they may

require for their work, or if he attempts to interfere with the discharge of their duties, then the Bureau of Animal Industry and the Department of Agriculture have absolute authority to withdraw all inspectors from that house. This means that the department has a right to practically put that slaughtering and meat packing house out of business, because without inspection the packer cannot do an interstate or foreign trade, and public knowledge that inspection had been withdrawn from his establishment would so prejudice his product, even for local trade, that he would probably find very little sale for it.

In addition to the federal inspectors, there are also state inspectors and city inspectors. The inspection of the meat supply under the authority of the state government is confined entirely to inspection of live animals. This is conducted in Illinois as far as I know only at the Union Stock Yards in Chicago and the National Stock Yards at St. Louis. In this inspection the state officials co-operate with the United States Government and the local inspectors.

Inspection on the hoof detects, principally in cattle, actinomycosis, or lump-jaw, possibly advanced cases of tuberculosis and emaciation, when cattle are too poor and thin to be considered as food. Animals thus detected and suspected when alive are segregated, virtually quarantined. They are not sold to the large packers or to any other slaughterers. They remain in the ownership of the man who sent them to market. Once a week or oftener if necessary, these quarantined cattle are taken to an official quarantined slaughter house, and are there slaughtered under the supervision of an United States inspector, a state inspector and a local city inspector. Some of them, of course, after slaughtered, are found to be fit for food; in which case they are passed the same as if they had been slaughtered in any of the officially inspected slaughter houses. If found to be unfit for food, they are treated the same as in the large houses; that is, the carcasses are destroyed or converted into grease and fertilizer material. The meat that is good is, of course, sold just like any other meat that is inspected and passed as fit for food, and the grease and fertilizer material that is derived from the condemned meat, are also sold, and the proceeds are remitted to the shipper.

This work is performed in Chicago by the Standard Slaughter Company, which has had a great deal of attention in recent discussions of the meat question, and its existence has been subject to very much misinterpretation. The Standard slaughter house establishment does not compare with any of the large plants in cleanliness or sanitary arrangements. For this condition there is no excuse; it ought not to be tolerated.

However, the larger amount of misinformation concerning the Standard has been along the line of treating it as an outlet for diseased cattle or diseased meat. This construction of its function is unfair.

The method of handling diseased cattle, through the Standard slaughter house, was devised to protect the public against diseased meat. Before this method was adopted by direction of the late Governor Altgeld, diseased animals coming to the stock yards at Chicago were simply separated from

their fellows and sold to anybody who would buy them. They were then run out into the country to some nearby point, where their slaughter would not be under official observation, and were there killed. The meat from them was then sold in Chicago. The method of having them killed in a quarantined slaughter house was adopted to prevent the sale of meats from inspected animals that could be shown to be after slaughter unfit for food. This quarantined slaughter house thus becomes not an outlet for diseased meat, but a gate that is locked against the passage of diseased meat to the public.

Meats that come from the Standard slaughter house, after passing inspection, are of course as good as meats from any other source, but as a matter of fact, to avoid any misunderstanding on the part of the public, the large packers prefer not to deal in the Standard output.

On top of the inspection of the live cattle by the state inspectors, and the carcasses and meats by the Government inspectors, comes the inspection by the city inspectors. This may have been somewhat neglected in former years, but more recently it has been most rigid and severe. City meat inspectors are appointed under the civil service system, and are either veterinarians or at least have had a long practical experience as butchers, and so forth.

In order to show some of the qualifications required of these men, I quote here a few of the questions asked in the civil service examination for meat inspectors of February 15, 1906:

1. Name the diseases and other conditions for which you would condemn and destroy meat.
2. Describe the post mortem appearance of cattle afflicted with tuberculosis. Where lesions are usually found.
3. Describe the post mortem appearance of cattle affected with actinomycosis.
4. How would you tell immature veal, commonly called "slunk" calf?
5. Describe the post mortem appearance of a cholera hog.
6. Describe the post mortem appearance of a "downer."
7. Describe the post mortem appearance of an emaciated carcass.
8. How could you tell that the evidences of tuberculosis had been removed from a beef carcass?
9. Name three diseases commonly found in hogs.

Their duties and powers may be learned from the following quotations from the city ordinances:

"All meat condemned in the city by government or state meat inspectors shall be destroyed under the supervision and subject to the directions of the city meat inspectors, and the city meat inspectors or any one of them are hereby empowered to seize, condemn and destroy any tainted or unwholesome meat found in the city, and they are authorized to enter any building, structure or premises in the city to inspect and examine any meat contained therein.

"Every keeper of a meat market or dealer in meats and every person owning or occupying any place where any cattle are killed or dressed

. . . shall cause such place to be thoroughly cleansed and purified, and all offal, blood, fat, garbage, refuse and unwholesome or offensive matter to be therefrom removed at least once in every twenty-four hours, after the use thereof for any of the purposes herein referred to, and shall also at all times keep whitewashed the floors and counters and the building thoroughly painted and whitewashed."

The city inspectors have full power to enter any place where animals are killed, or where meat is kept, except of course, private residences. While the city inspectors are not present, as a rule, at the slaughter of the animals, they inspect daily the cooling rooms of the various establishments and there, as the records show, condemn many carcasses, often after they have passed Government inspection. They tag every carcass that they find unfit for food, even if it has already been condemned by the Government inspectors; but of course they do not inspect again that which already has been condemned.

The Commissioner of Health, in his annual report for the year 1905, states as follows:

"The city meat inspectors have condemned in the coolers and on the cutting floors, *after passing Government inspection,*

125	Cattle,	cause	Actinomycosis.
97	"	"	Emaciation.
24	"	"	Tuberculosis—evidence of disease having been trimmed out.
16	"	"	"Downers."
27	Sheep,	"	Pneumonia.
94	Hogs,	"	Pyæmia and Tuberculosis.
47,720	lbs. cut meats	shipped from St. Louis, Omaha, etc., for canning.	This meat was sour and slimy.

Dr. Charles J. Whalen, the Commissioner of Health, has recently issued the following instructions to meat inspectors:

"All animals found upon examination to be affected with any of the following diseases or conditions, shall be *condemned and destroyed*:

Tuberculosis, Texas Fever, Actinomycosis, Black Leg, Pneumonia, Piemia, Septicemia, Rabies, Hog Cholera, Swine Plague, Anthras, Mange or Scab, Hemorrhagic Septicemia, Pleurisy, Enteritis, Peritonitis, Metritis, Malignant Epizootic Catarrh, and animals in an advanced stage of Pregnancy, or within ten days after parturition; animals with extensive bruises and injuries; tumors; abscesses; anemic or emaciated animals; immature animals; calves under four weeks of age; any disease or injury or elevation of temperature so affecting the animal as to make the flesh unfit for human food.

"Any and all animals affected with any of the diseases or conditions named below shall be disposed of according to the following instructions:

"TUBERCULOSIS. All animals affected with tuberculosis of a generalized or extensive character, shall be condemned and destroyed. The carcass may be passed if the tuberculosis is slight, incapsulated or calcified, and



limited to one organ or one group of lymphatic glands. The lesions and the surrounding tissues must be removed and condemned.

"ACTINOMYCOSIS. The entire carcass shall be condemned whenever the actinomycosis abscess opens into the mouth, pharynx, larynx, or any part of the adjoining or respiratory tract or one of the lymphatic glands are involved, or when the lesions have become generalized or if the animal be affected with tuberculosis or any other disease. The animal may be passed if the lesions are small, calcified or incapsulated and confined to the head or neck. These affected parts and the surrounding flesh to be condemned and destroyed.

"ICTERUS. All animals showing evidences of Icterus (Jaundice), after proper cooling, shall be condemned and destroyed.

"All animals that have died before slaughtering shall be condemned and destroyed.

"All meats—fresh, smoked, slated or otherwise treated—which are found to be unwholesome, tainted, sour, decomposed or otherwise unfit for human food, shall be condemned and destroyed.

"All animals or parts of animals or meat or food of any kind that is condemned shall be tagged immediately with a tag furnished by the Department having upon it in large red letters 'Condemned.'

"All condemned carcasses and parts shall be tanked and destroyed under the personal supervision and direction of a meat inspector who should seal the tank after the material has been placed therein, and break such seal after he is satisfied that the steam which has been turned into the tank has completely destroyed the meat.

"In all cases where the inspector is not perfectly satisfied that the animal should be condemned, it shall be tagged and portions of the lesion removed and brought to the laboratory for examination and diagnosis by the pathologist.

LUMPY JAW.—"While Actinomycosis is usually confined to the head, and may be said in one sense to be a localized disease and while some inspectors condemn only the part involved I believe it is safest and most practicable to condemn the entire carcass whenever the Actinomycosis abscess opens into the mouth, pharynx, larynx, or any part of the digestive or respiratory tract; or when the lymphatic glands are involved; or where there are Actinomycotic Tumors in the lungs; or where the lesions have become generalized, since generalization in Actinomycosis appears to run a very atypic course, making the detection of all foci inside the muscle very difficult; therefore the entire carcass is to be condemned.

"In cases where the Actinomycotic lesions are positively localized the infected part may be cut away and the remains of the carcass used.

"These instructions apply only to 'Lumpy Jaw.' There may be other reasons why you should want to condemn a carcass, and it is then a matter of judgment for you and your men. But you should never hesitate if you believe the animal to be not fit for human food.

"CHAS. J. WHALEN, M. D.,  
"Commissioner of Health."

There are at present eight inspectors engaged exclusively with the inspection of meat. During the first six months of 1906 condemnations at the Union Stock Yards and in the so-called "Loop" district, that is the down-town district where the commission houses and wholesalers are located, were as follows:

In Union Stock Yards 3500 carcasses of beef, weighing 1,054,400 pounds; 2015 carcasses of veal weighing 335,980 pounds; 4224 hogs, weighing 1,245,334 pounds.

In the "loop" district they condemned 39 carcasses of beef weighing 17,550 pounds; 738 calves, weighing 52,810 pounds, and 76 hogs, weighing 19,309 pounds.

They further condemned 62,639 pounds of dressed meats in the stock yards and 99,656 pounds in the loop district.

This does not include lamb or mutton, poultry or other foods. The slaughter houses and abattoirs, as well as the local markets, are also examined and investigated by special sanitary inspectors, and although this work had always been done to a large extent, it cannot be denied that the recent agitation has been a great incentive for more and perhaps more rigid work. All together it may be stated with safety that meat inspection in Chicago is at present carried out so rigorously as to protect Chicagoans as well as the consumers in other cities against any possibility of unwholesome meat.

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#### NEW YORK

By THOMAS DARLINGTON, M. D., Commissioner Department of Health, New York City.

New York City derives its meat from two sources—that which is imported from the large abattoirs of the west, and that which is killed and prepared in the local slaughter houses.

The only supervision which the Department has over the western killed meat is that of the inspectors stationed in the wholesale markets and that of the inspectors who are assigned to duty in the retail butcher shops. These men are few in number and of course cannot inspect each shop every day or even every week. They do however cover the districts assigned to them as frequently as possible. The locally killed meat is examined in a general way by veterinarians in the stock yards before being delivered at the slaughter houses. After the arrival of the cattle at the slaughter houses they are under the general supervision of inspectors assigned to each slaughter house or slaughtering district as the exigencies of the service may demand. These men are required to conserve as far as possible the wholesomeness of the meat sold. Various sections of the Sanitary Code give these inspectors authority, and, in fact, the direction to condemn and seize all meat which is unfit for human food and have the same removed to the Offal Dock for destruction.

During the year 1905 there were condemned and seized 247,293 pounds of beef, 210,112 pounds of veal, 264,951 pounds of pork, 260,807 pounds of poultry, and 97,850 pounds of mutton. This with the assorted meats and game seized made a grand total of 1,110,749 pounds of meat seized during the year.

The Charter of the City of Greater New York defines quite specifically where slaughter houses may be established. Sections 83, 84, and 85 of the Sanitary Code limit the location of the slaughter houses in the Borough of Manhattan to two very small districts, and in the Borough of Brooklyn and other boroughs, to places located at or near the water front so that all stock to be killed may be delivered thereat from boats or cars, with this proviso, however, that any slaughter houses which were in existence prior to consolidation of the City of Brooklyn and the City of New York, might be allowed to conduct their business as heretofore. No new building may be constructed or operated as a slaughter house within the City limits until its proposed plans have been thoroughly examined and approved by the Board of Health at one of its stated meetings. All the parts of a building in which slaughtering is conducted are, so far as possible, made of non-absorbent material. The buildings are frequently painted or white-washed and are kept in as cleanly a condition as the nature of the business will allow.

The blood, offal, fat, and other refuse from slaughtered animals is disposed of either in disposal plants situated in the immediate vicinity of the slaughter houses, or else is conveyed to the Offal Dock in tight fitting receptacles and removed by the offal contractor for destruction. These plants are constructed in accordance with the most modern practice. All of the apparatus necessary in the treating of this material is air tight and is so arranged as to prevent the escape of offensive odors into the external air.

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### CINCINNATI

By MAX B. MAY, Esq., and JOSEPH M. GOOD, V. S. M. D., Chief Meat Inspector of Cincinnati.

About 90 per cent of the beef and 85 per cent of the pork and other meats sold in Cincinnati are slaughtered and prepared in Cincinnati. Fifty-two packing and slaughtering houses are located within the city limits. The general sanitary condition of these houses is good, a marked improvement having been made since last March; and it is expected that conditions will continue to improve steadily.

Under the revised statutes and local ordinances the Board of Health is authorized to adopt regulations for the inspection of meat. A State law makes the sale of any kind of diseased or tainted meat, without notifying the buyer of the condition thereof, an offense punishable by a fine of not more than \$50, or imprisonment for twenty days, or both. A similar penalty is visited on any person who has in his possession, with intent to sell,

any veal which he knows to have been killed when less than four weeks old. The principal law governing the sale of meats is the Board of Health regulation which prohibits any person from bringing into the city for sale any meat, fish, or poultry that is diseased, or for any other reason is unfit for food. The mere fact that animals are placed in a slaughter house pen is sufficient evidence that they are being exposed for sale. No part of any animal food that has been examined and condemned by the inspector or his assistants may be offered for sale for food in any market or place in the city. Whenever diseased or unsound animals are condemned by the inspectors as unfit for human food, the health officer may, whenever he deems it necessary for the protection of the public, order the inspectors to kill the condemned animals. The carcasses of these animals are turned over to the party who is under contract with the city to remove the bodies of dead animals. The inspectors supervise the delivery of these animals.

The Chief Live-Stock and Meat Inspector and his assistants are appointed by the Board of Public Service, sitting as the Board of Health, upon the recommendation of the Health Officer. Board of Health Reg. No. 7 says: The Live-Stock and Meat Inspector and his assistants shall enforce the laws and ordinances relating to his sub-department, and particularly those concerning diseased or unsound cattle and meats, and the sections relating to slaughtering and slaughter pens.

Besides the Chief Live-Stock and Meat Inspector there are four assistants; the chief is a graduated veterinarian and physician who has had seven years' experience as a meat inspector; the assistants are practical butchers. These inspectors inspect as best they can all animals in the pens at the various slaughter-houses, inspect the dressed carcasses in the coolers of the slaughter-houses and meat depots, inspect all retail markets and meat stores, and spend as much time as possible doing post-mortem inspection at the different slaughter-houses while slaughtering is being done.

The U. S. Department of Agriculture maintains a corps of fifteen inspectors at the Union Stock Yards and at two of the larger packing-houses. These inspectors co-operate with the Health Department as much as possible, and they do all inspecting of live animals at the Union Stock Yards, which receives about ninety-five (95) per cent of all live stock received in the city.

The final inspection of all meats, regarded as unfit for food is made by the Chief Live-Stock and Meat Inspector, and what he condemns is saturated with coal oil and sent to the desiccating works. Where carcasses of cattle, hogs, or calves are condemned the owner usually receives a small remuneration from the desiccating company.

**NEW ORLEANS, LA.**

**By Dr. QUITMAN KOHNKE, City Health Officer, New Orleans, La.**

The meat supply of New Orleans is derived mainly from two sources: The local slaughter houses and the Western packers. What is known as imported or western meat is shipped from Omaha, Kansas City and Chicago. This comprises about 25 per cent of the total of whole animals, though probably an equal quantity by weight is additionally received in the shape of pork loins, shoulders and miscellaneous pieces; the balance of the meat supply is from the local slaughter houses of which there are two in operation, one within the city limits and the other in the adjoining parish of St. Bernard. Roughly speaking the supply in bulk is about equally divided between imported and home slaughtered meat, the increase in consumption averaging about ten per cent yearly. The total quantity inspected in 1905 was 248,739 whole animals, 331,383 pork loins, 48,913 pork shoulders and 1,905,118 miscellaneous pieces not classified.

Railway shipments are received in refrigerator cars and the meats are, as a rule, in good condition on arrival, though delay in transport occasionally occurs and this sometimes causes condemnation of shipments in whole or in part. In 1905 there were condemned on account of decomposition 24,210 pounds of meat and in 1904, 20,919 pounds. Occasionally dressed meat is found on arrival bearing the government stamp and yet showing evidence of disease. The government stamp affords no protection to the owners against local condemnation for any cause.

Local slaughter houses have improved considerably in the last few years and are now in fairly good condition, though not to be classed with the most modern in sanitary construction and proper management. The most objectionable feature of the neighborhoods of the slaughter houses is the presence of the rendering plants, no one of which is operated with the minimum possibility of offence.

Of the two slaughter houses the one within the city limits is decidedly the better both in construction and management. It is conducted on a co-operative basis, being practically owned and operated by the butchers who market its products. While not yet including all of the desirable features of a thoroughly modern abattoir its inauguration a few years ago was a distinct and important sanitary improvement, and its success in competition has stimulated the older establishment, just outside the parish line and city limits, to extensive plans of structural improvements soon to be carried out.

The Jefferson Barracks, an important permanent army post, is situated between the two slaughter houses, and at times urgent complaints are made against the unpleasant odors arising from their proximity to the post. These and similar complaints are due, it is believed, to the rendering plants and not to the abattoirs themselves.

The act establishing boards of health in Louisiana gives to the State

Board of Health the authority to establish regulations for the inspection of food products imported into the state or brought from one parish to another, but the State Board has acquiesced in the formulation of regulations by the City of New Orleans for the inspection of meats intended for consumption in that city, and a state statute gives, especially, to the New Orleans Board of Health sanitary authority over the slaughter house in the neighboring parish of St. Bernard. The ordinance creating the meat inspection service provides for a graduated fee for the inspection of home slaughtered, and imported meats sufficient to defray the costs of such inspection, aggregating about \$15,000 annually.

In the department of local inspection there are employed from 12 to 15 inspectors, under the direction of a chief who is a veterinarian. No civil service requirements are enforced, the general civil service law not including in its scope the employees of the board of health. The meat inspectors are appointed by the Board of Health, but as the chief meat inspector is responsible for his subordinates his recommendations as to appointments and dismissals are usually adopted. Inspectors are stationed at the local slaughter houses and at the receiving stations for imported meats and all meats are inspected and marked, by tag or stamp, prior to their being sent to the retail markets, where they are still kept under surveillance for decomposition by inspectors, who visit the markets in the early hours of the morning. The method of inspection is by sight, touch and smell; the assistant inspectors being instructed in the recognition of abnormal conditions. Occasionally chemical, microscopical and bacteriological examinations are necessary, and are made. The method of inspection is the same for imported and home slaughtered meats.

Meat found in a condition unfit for food because decomposition has set in, or for other cause, is saturated with coal oil and sent to a rendering plant or dump according to the value and quantity. At times quantities as large as 10,000 pounds and over are condemned, and, as the ownership of the meat is not affected by its condition, it is sold for account of the owner to the highest bidder prepared to destroy it. Quantities too small to have a commercial value except as food are oiled and sent to the garbage dump.

Cattle intended for slaughter are subject to inspection on the hoof by an inspector who is an appointee of the Governor. Usually he is not technically qualified and acts by deputy. This inspection has consisted for many years in a mere counting of heads for the purpose of collecting the fee. It is a farce, whose only excuse for existence, aside from furnishing a job to a political favorite, is that a part of the fee collected is paid to the Charity Hospital. No compensation is paid to owners of condemned meat other than that which is paid by the rendering plant.

The city ordinance under which the meat inspection system operates has been called into court twice; once into the State court by the local butchers and once into the Federal court by the agents of western packers. In its present shape, which is its second enactment, it fulfils every requirement of constitutional law and is unassailable.

New Orleans was at one time a market for meat that could not be

sold in other large cities, but the local meat inspection system has made it unprofitable for shippers to consign inferior meats to this city and hence the quality of shipments has improved, both in dressed meats and live stock intended for slaughter.

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**DETROIT, MICH.**

BY DELOS F. WILCOX, PH.D., Secretary Detroit Municipal League.

Detroit gets its meat supply from various sources. Most of the dressed meat is received from the Chicago packing houses in car lots. Probably more than half of the total supply of meat, however, is received from various parts of Michigan, and slaughtered here. The animals are generally brought in by rail, although some are hauled to the city by farmers from the surrounding country. The meat brought in by individual farmers is not always seen by the inspectors. A very large part of the animals brought here for slaughter pass through the Detroit stockyards. There are, however, a large number of private slaughter-houses in the city, more than forty wholesale meat dealers and upwards of 500 retail markets. When the conditions at the Chicago stockyards were being investigated a few months ago, there was some special investigation and criticism of local conditions which led to the passage of more stringent ordinances regulating the equipment of the stock-yards and the inspection of meat.

Detroit has for the last twenty years had two meat inspectors. They were originally appointed by the Common Council, but are now appointees of the local Board of Health, whose members have since 1895 been appointed by the Governor of the State.

Three years ago the Legislature passed a general act authorizing the appointment of one or more meat inspectors by any city or village in this State, and conferring upon the local authorities power to license the meat business and regulate slaughter-houses by ordinance. Authority is given to exclude from the city or village the meats from any outside slaughtering-house which does not conform to the rules laid down. Furthermore, the municipality is authorized to establish a public abattoir, if it so desires. Meat that has already been inspected by Federal authority is exempted from local inspection except as to the place where it is sold and as to changes, decomposition, etc. This law contains stringent provisions for the regulation of slaughter-houses, which must be contained in any local ordinance adopted under the terms of the act. Under special laws, however, Detroit had long since been equipped with a meat inspection system and ordinances controlling it.

The following rules have been adopted by the Detroit Board of Health, governing the use and care of slaughter-houses within the limits of the city, and every owner, lessee or occupant of a slaughter-house is notified and required to obey them;

"First. All slaughter-houses, pens or enclosures connected therewith, shall be kept in a proper sanitary condition.

"Second. Slaughter-houses shall have water-tight floors, which shall be thoroughly washed off after slaughtering is completed.

"Third. Slaughter-houses and pens shall be whitewashed inside at least once a month.

"Fourth. All slaughtering of animals shall be conducted without exposure to the public.

"Fifth. All offal shall be removed on the day of slaughtering.

"Sixth. Iron gratings (bars not over one inch apart) are required to head all outlets to sewer from floor of slaughter-house.

"Seventh. All animals kept in yards attached to slaughter-houses must be treated in a humane manner, and, if kept there over twelve hours, must be fed and watered. Bleating calves shall not be kept in pens over twelve hours.

"Eighth. The meat inspectors of the Board of Health shall have free access to premises at all times in the performance of their duties.

"Ninth. It shall be unlawful to slaughter any animals in sheds or barns. A slaughter-house designed and built in accordance with the law is the **ONLY** place where such killing may be done, and no nuisance shall be committed."

The Detroit Board of Health act itself provides that "Neither blood, bristles, hair, entrails, or any offal whatever shall be allowed to enter any public sewer, and all entrails shall be emptied, all blood cooked, and all offal cleaned up at the place of slaughtering within six hours after such slaughtering takes place."

Until recently the city ordinance governing the stockyards has provided that they be paved with cobblestone, and of course under these conditions the floors could not be properly cleaned. The new ordinance requires that "All stockyards in the City of Detroit shall be thoroughly drained, and paved with vitrified brick or other suitable material, which may be readily and thoroughly cleaned of all accumulations, such drainage to be connected with a public sewer, and the pavement laid in such a manner as to keep the same dry and free from standing or stagnant water."

The new ordinance prescribing methods of meat inspection provides that "It shall be the duty of said inspectors personally to view as far as possible all meats and poultry offered or kept for sale for human food in said city; to visit all stock yards, barns, commission houses, slaughter houses, and all other places in said city, and to inspect all animals delivered, received, confined or held in them for slaughter, and the carcasses of all animals already slaughtered for human food, and to visit all places, including all steam and electric railway stations, depots or freight houses, steamboat wharves or freight houses belonging thereto, express houses, cars or wagons where meat for human food is delivered to, received, stored or held by railway corporations, steamboat owners, or other corporations, firms or persons, kept or offered for sale, and to inspect and ascertain the condition of said meat.

"Each of said inspectors shall have authority, and it shall be his duty to condemn, take immediate possession of, confiscate and destroy any meat or poultry, sold or offered for sale, in violation of this or any other ordinance of the city, and make complaint before the proper officer for every violation of said ordinance, coming to his knowledge, and it shall be unlawful, and a



violation of this ordinance for the owner or any other person to remove, secrete, sell or offer for sale any live animal or animals, fish, game or poultry, or the carcass or carcasses of any and all slaughtered animals, fish, game or poultry, oysters, clams, lobsters, or other sea food, after the same shall have been taken possession of, confiscated and condemned by either or both of said meat inspectors.

"Said inspectors shall at all times have the right to open any and all barrels, boxes or packages in their discretion at any of said stations, depots, wharves, freight houses, warehouses, commission houses, express houses, cars or wagons, or other places in which they have good reason to believe, any carcass of any animal, fish, poultry or game, oysters, clams, lobsters, or other sea food, or other article of meat shipped, offered or intended to be offered for sale for human food, is contained or concealed, and take immediate possession of, confiscate, condemn and destroy, if necessary."

The meat inspectors shall have the right, and it shall be their duty to condemn and cause to be slaughtered immediately and destroyed, so that the same shall not be used for human food all calves under four weeks old, or which are diseased, emaciated or otherwise unfit for human food; and all badly crippled, overheated or diseased hogs, cattle, sheep or lambs, which for any other reason are unfit for human food.

It would seem as if two inspectors would have their hands more than full in carrying out the provisions of this ordinance for a city of 350,000 inhabitants. It is claimed, however, that they visit the principal wholesale markets every day and get around to the retail markets once or twice a week. Complaints requiring their special attention are occasionally received. The city inspectors do not look after shipments of dressed meat, but see it only when and where it appears for sale. The animals brought into the city for slaughter are, however, subject to inspection. The inspectors have summary authority to condemn unsound meat or diseased animals intended for slaughter. The usual method of handling condemned meat is to treat it with kerosene oil so that it cannot be used for food. Condemned meat is sent to local rendering plants. Condemned animals are slaughtered and sent the same way. No provision is made for compensating the consignee in case shipments are condemned. He is left to adjust that with the shipper.

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**MILWAUKEE, WIS.**

By JOHN A. BUTLER, Milwaukee, Wis.

The Chicago and Milwaukee stock yards furnish Milwaukee with its supply of meat, and the railway shipments are large. The present condition of local slaughter houses is good. The city is very fortunate in its present health commissioner, Dr. G. A. Bading, who is competent and energetic and thoroughly alive to the sanitary necessities of the population. He was not only the first municipal health commissioner to make a drastic and thorough inspection of the condition of the local meat supply after the Neills-Reynolds

report, but he is the indefatigable foe of unsanitary conditions in every direction, including the milk supply and the care of streets, alleys, and docks. In spite of the inactivity of other departments, everything possible under the law has been done to put this city in proper condition and many important changes have been brought about. The local inspection is frequent and regular, and is conducted by inspectors under the control of the health commissioner and chief of police covering the general meat supply and the stock yards, packing houses and meat markets. The government inspection of meat appears to be confined to the condition of cattle "on the hoof," that is in the stock yards, and to the "killing rooms," comprising, of course, the condition of shipment, whereas the local inspection comprises a searching examination of unsanitary conditions of every description. The inspectors are appointed by the Health Department from an eligible list provided by the "Civil Service Commission," and are under the direction of Dr. Bading. They investigate all complaints and thoroughly examine the conditions of slaughter houses, meat markets, stock yards, bakeries and milk depots. Daily reports are made to the commissioner and necessary orders are issued and transmitted to the owners, and in due time, further inspections are made to see if the orders and suggestions of the Health Department have been carried out. The condemned meats are saturated with kerosene and destroyed or consigned to the rendering plants. The skins are turned over to the owners.

The Health Department will soon introduce an ordinance compelling all butchers, meat dealers, bakers and other dealers in food stuffs to take out licenses, in order to make more complete official control. An examination of the correspondence between the Health Department and various packing houses, together with the detailed reports of inspectors, discloses an interesting degree of detailed examination, and it is gratifying to be able to say that the packing house of the Layton Company was found to be a conspicuous model. Only one Milwaukee packing house was found to be wholly bad in its appliances and general condition. The rest were in the main not seriously faulty, and their proprietors were prompt in making the changes required by the Health Department.

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#### WASHINGTON, D. C.

By MURRAY GALT MOTTER, Chief Inspector and Deputy Health Officer,  
District of Columbia.

Probably 75 or 85 per cent. of the meat supply comes from the west,—chiefly, Chicago. It is shipped to Washington in cold storage cars, and is subject to inspection in local storage places after removal. All this meat bears the stamp of the Federal Government. Most of the local slaughtering is done at the Benning abattoir, the condition of which is good. There is one small slaughter house where the slaughtering is irregular and not very extensive. There are a few others where sheep and calves are killed. There are two

abattoirs in Virginia in the immediate vicinity of the District, one at Jackson City and the other at Rosslyn; the work at these abattoirs is not under inspection, being entirely outside the jurisdiction of the local health department. At the instance of the Health Officer, the Commissioners of the District have brought this matter to the attention of the Department of Agriculture, in order to have inspectors stationed at these Virginia establishments, but under date of August 24, 1904, the Acting Secretary of Agriculture stated that, "while the law authorizes the Department to establish inspection at slaughter houses doing interstate or foreign business, as a matter of fact, Congress has never appropriated sufficient funds for applying the inspection to all such places. There are now pending before the Department numerous applications for inspection, which cannot be granted because the appropriation for the current year will not permit the extension of the service, and I regret to say that under these circumstances the Department is unable to establish inspection at the places mentioned." In the annual reports of the Health Officer, attention has been called to this defect, and the recommendation has been made that all meat and meat products sold in the District should bear the seal of Federal or local inspection as a guarantee of their freedom from disease.

In the past year there have been killed, under the observation of the District inspectors, 13,254 cattle, 54,033 hogs, 24,975 sheep, and 40,935 calves. Of these, there were condemned  $25\frac{1}{4}$  cattle, 108 hogs, and 36 sheep; a total of 97,199 inspected, and  $169\frac{1}{4}$  condemned, not including small viscera, etc.

The local laws are contained in an ordinance to prevent the sale of unwholesome food in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, as amended by Commissioners' orders of January 2, 1902, April 21, 1903, and April 27, 1906. Also, the Act of Congress approved February 17, 1898, relating to the adulteration of foods and drugs in the District of Columbia. Briefly, the ordinance prohibits the sale of impure, diseased, decayed, or unwholesome provisions; provides that no person shall convey into the District of Columbia and offer for sale in any part of said District, any animal or part of animal that may be sickly, diseased or unwholesome, or which may have died from disease or accident; that no person shall slaughter any cattle for the purpose of food, within the District of Columbia, when such cattle are in a feverish or diseased condition. There are further provisions with regard to the exposure of food for sale, and the general cleanliness of places in which food products are kept, or stored. While the Act of Congress provides "That an article shall be deemed to be adulterated within the meaning of this act: (b) In the case of food . . . if it consists wholly or in part of a deceased, (Sic!) decomposed, putrid, or rotten animal or vegetable substance, whether manufactured or not." There is no authority by which the inspector may kill, or order killed, a diseased animal; but the same may be branded. In the inspection of meats offered for sale, it has been the practice of the Department to slash the meat, in order to prevent the making of the ordinary cuts, and in other cases to pour coal oil over it, in order that it may not again be used.

For general inspection, three of the veterinarians connected with the inspection of dairy farms and dairy products are detailed to inspect the slaughter houses two days in the week, each. There are in addition, three food inspec-

tors, whose duty is to inspect the markets, stores and restaurants. These inspectors are appointed by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia on the recommendation of the Health Officer. With regard to the inspection of meats, the Federal rules are observed, and the larger cold storage plants in which meat is stored, being near the principal market of the city, are regularly inspected.

At the abattoir, the meat which is condemned is tanked for fertilizing purposes, under the personal supervision of the inspector on duty. There is no compensation to the owner for products condemned.

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### PROVIDENCE, R. I.

BY FRANK E. LAKEY, Providence, R. I.

The chief source of the meat supply of Providence is Chicago, only a few shipments being received from Indianapolis and Cincinnati. The local supply is furnished by one small slaughter house. The condition of this house is fair. The western meat comes dressed in refrigerator cars. No live meat is received from the west by rail. The average is forty cars of beef (25 to 40 animals) and four of mutton weekly.

If a person sells diseased or unwholesome provisions, whether meat or drink, without making the same known to the buyer, the penalty is imprisonment for not more than six months or of a fine of not more than \$200. If a calf less than four weeks old be killed for sale the fine may not exceed \$200.

A State law passed April 20, 1906, prohibits the importation or exportation, or possession with intent to sell, within the State of any slaughtered animal, or any meat or fish of any kind, whether manufactured or not, that is tainted or diseased, or any unwholesome animal substance unfit for food.

A state inspector general is appointed, but the office has been a farce for years. The only inspection is by the city inspector of beef and pork. The ordinances of the City of Providence provide that the City Council at the annual election of officers shall appoint one inspector of beef and pork, who must give a bond for \$1,000. His duties require him to visit "from time to time and at frequent intervals all places within the city limits where fruit, vegetables, meat, fish, or other provisions, liable to become diseased or unwholesome, shall be exposed for sale." If in his opinion necessary, he may seize and destroy or dispose of, otherwise than as food, any poor article. One hour after seizure he is to treat such provision with kerosene oil or other substance to make it unfit for food. A record of each seizure is kept and a report made to the chief of police. The inspector is to act on notice from the State Board of Health, the Superintendent of Health, the City Physician, Mayor or City Council. In general he is under the direction of the City Superintendent of Health. His salary is paid by the city.

Whatever inspection of shipments is made, is by the local inspector. Some of the meat from western cities is received without the tag of the government inspector. The inspector visits stores, store houses, cold storage plants, etc., at irregular intervals and hours. All suspicious food is examined and, if condemned, is removed at once. Packages are opened if necessary. Refrigerators and cellars are entered. The work of the present local inspector is thorough, persistent and beneficial. Ready support is given by all the better class of dealers. The chief trouble is with the non-English speaking dealers.

The thoroughness of the inspection of the markets of the City of Providence is shown in the number of the visits of the inspector and the quantity of provisions condemned. In 1904 the number of calls was 2,930 and in 1905, 2,750. In 1904 meat and fish were condemned to the amount of over 16,000 pounds. In 1905 the amount condemned was less by one-half—due to co-operation of the dealers, cooler summer and more persistent inspection.

The destination of condemned meats and animals is the several rendering plants. These plants turn out fertilizers, fats and bones. During 1905 the State Board of Health killed 728 animals, including 668 cows. The number killed is between two and three percent of the total in the state. When animals are killed by the State Board, a sliding scale of compensation is used in paying the owner.

## BOOK DEPARTMENT.

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### NOTES

**Alexander, De Alva S.** *A Political History of the State of New York.* 2 vols. Pp. viii, 404 and vi, 444. Price, \$5.00. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1906.

Reserved for later notice.

*Analytical Index*, vol. xxxi. *Early Western Travels, 1748-1846.* Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.

**Anonymous.** *A Practical Program for Working Men.* Pp. xiii + 227. Price, \$1.00. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co., 1906. Imported by Scribners.

The author, an American or an Englishman who lived in America when he wrote seeks to show that the "voter has (not) yet fully awakened to the essential principles that should animate political progress." Co-operation must supplant competition. As a theoretical discussion the book has some merit. It is pretty weak as a practical program.

**Blair and Robertson,** Edited by. *The Philippine Islands.* Vols. 42-45. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.

**Brown, William Horace.** *The Glory Seekers.* Pp. xi + 347. Price, \$1.50. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1906.

In this volume the author sketches the lives of some of those little known adventurers who sought to realize dreams of empire in the southwestern part of America. Few people today have any conception of the way Texas and the great regions thereabouts fired the imaginations of ambitious spirits of earlier days. Plenty of material for romance and fiction is here to be found. The book is well done and is interesting. Sixteen portraits help to make it more real.

**Cotton, J. P., Jr., Ed.** *The Constitutional Decisions of John Marshall.* 2 vols. Pp. xxxvi, 462 and viii, 464. Price, \$5.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1905.

Reserved for later notice.

**Dyer, Henry, C. E., M. A., D. Sc.** Emeritus Professor, Imperial University of Tokio, etc. *DAI NIPPON: A Study in National Evolution.* Pp. xvi, 450. Price, \$3.50. London: Blackie & Son, Limited. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1905.

This book contains a social study of Japan from the point of view of an engineer who spent ten years in Japan, and to whom Japan very greatly owes her well-organized system of engineering education. From beginning to end, the progressive power of the engineer is kept in view. He says of his friends in Japan: "They see that the engineer is the real revolutionist; for his work changes social and economic conditions and brings forces into action which are more powerful than anything which can be done by mere legislation."

The author states that his purpose has "not been to give a history of modern Japan or detailed statistics of recent developments . . . it has rather been to indicate the forces which have been at work in bringing about what is admitted to be the wonder of the latter half of the nineteenth century; namely, the rise of Japan as a member of the comity of nations, and to note some of the chief results."

As preparatory to his discussion, Mr. Dyer describes the work of the Imperial College of Engineering. He then discusses the fall of feudalism in Japan, the Japanese mind, the transition, education in old and new Japan, the army and navy, means of communication, industrial developments, art industries, commerce, the food supply, colonization and emigration, constitutional government, administration, finance, international relations, foreign politics and social results. The book closes with an outlook upon the future of Japan, and a supplementary statement of recent events. There are also short appendices (one bibliographical) and a brief index. He makes special mention of Captain Brinkley's work on China and Japan, and considers valuable for reference the files of the daily newspapers published in English in Japan, particularly the *Japan Daily Mail*, and the *Japan Times*.

The book is interesting, modern, and very thoughtful; having the outlook of a man of scientific training, who is yet conscious of the deeper currents of individual and racial life. He states the problem of the future thus: "How best to take full advantage of all that is good in Western civilization while retaining the special characteristics of Japan and bringing them into organic harmony with those of other nations."

**Fairlie, J. A.** *Local Government in Counties, Towns and Villages.* Pp. xii, 289. Price, \$1.25. New York: Century Co., 1906.

Reserved for later notice.

**Fleming, W. L.,** Edited by. *Documentary History of Reconstruction, Political, Military, Social, Educational, and Industrial.* Two volumes. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.

**Hall, Prescott F.** *Immigration and its Effects upon the United States.* Pp. xiv, 393. Price \$1.50, net. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. See "Book Reviews."

**Hildt, J. C.** *Early Diplomatic Negotiations in the United States with Russia.* Pp. 195. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, vol. xxiv, Nos. 5 and 6.

**Hishida, S. G.** *The International Position of Japan as a Great Power.* Pp. 284. New York: Columbia University Press, 1905.  
See "Book Reviews."

**Hollander, J. H., and, Barnett, G. E.** *Studies in American Trade Unionism.* Pp. vi, 380. Price, \$2.75, net. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906.

Reserved for later notice.

**Jones, C. L.** *The Consular Service of the United States.* Pp. x, 126. Series in Political Economy and Public Law, University of Pennsylvania.

Reserved for later notice.

**Leacock, Stephen.** *Elements of Political Science.* Pp. ix, 417. Price, \$1.75. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906.

Reserved for later notice.

**Lloyd, H. D.** *Man, the Social Creator.* Pp. vi, 279. Price, \$2.00. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1906.

Reserved for later notice.

**Merriam, G. S.** *The Negro and the Nation.* Pp. iv, 436. Price, \$1.75, net. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906.

See "Book Reviews."

**Morga.** *History of the Philippine Islands.* Two volumes. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.

**Morton, James F.** *The Curse of Race Prejudice.* Pp. 78. Price, \$0.25. New York: By the author—244 West 143 st., 1906.

Expanded from a lecture originally given at the Alhambra Theater, the pamphlet is a strong protest against race prejudice wherever found. Naturally his illustrations, which are very numerous, are drawn from our own American life. It is written in popular form and will interest and influence those whose minds are not so made up as regards the superiority of some races over others that reasoning is impossible.

**New South Wales.** *Official Year Book, 1904-5.* Sydney: W. A. Gulick, 1906.

**Pierce, J. O.** *Studies in Constitutional History.* Pp. viii, 330. Minneapolis: H. W. Wilson Co., 1906.

Reserved for later notice.

**Preissig, Edward.** *Notes on the History and Political Institutions of the Old World.* Pp. lx, 719. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1906.

The author has prepared a text book of rather unusual scope which promises to be of considerable value. It is in no sense an original study but is based upon works of others. In the bibliography of "works used in compiling the notes" only titles of books in English are given, which would seem to indicate that the great historians of Germany and the rest of Europe



were ignored. A short outline is given of the history of the various nations from Egypt, Chaldea, Greece and Rome down to all modern European nations. China is included among the nations of ancient times, but the author's treatment of modern China is too brief to amount to anything. Ten good maps accompany the text.

**Raper, C. L.** *Principles of Wealth and Welfare.* Pp. xii, 336. Price, \$1.10. New York: Macmillan Co., 1906.

This book is an elementary exposition of economics for use in high schools. One suffers no disappointment, therefore, in finding that a small volume so designed contains little that is new save the language, illustrations, and order of treatment.

The author seems to regard economics as the science of means to an end,—the means being wealth and the end, welfare; though, of course he is careful to point out that there are also other means to the same end. There are three main divisions—wants (consumption), which give rise to efforts (production), which are recompensed by the returns (distribution), that satisfy wants. Under the head of production the author describes at greater length than is usual the different groups of producers, thus emphasizing in a striking manner the fact that commerce and transportation together with governmental activities are productive in an economic sense along with farming, mining, and manufacturing. In explaining the distribution of wealth the productivity theory is employed.

It appears to the reviewer that the author fails to put in a clear light the principle of decreasing returns in relation to land (pp. 87, 88). His first illustration is certainly a case of soil deterioration under exploitative methods of culture rather than a case of decreasing returns as that phrase is commonly used in economics. The deterioration of the soil has no relation to the principle of decreasing returns. In fact successive periods of time are no necessary part of the concept, and in case such periods of time enter into any illustration of the concept (as they so often do, to the confusion of the pupil) care needs to be taken to emphasize the fact that the principle has reference to the net and not to the gross products,—that is to say, it refers to the products left over after any soil depletion has been restored.

The best part of this volume is found in its descriptions, as description is ordinarily understood; however, in the higher realm of description, where description resumes under the briefest formulæ the widest range of facts, the work is not strong. It is next to impossible to write a satisfactory text for beginners, as for others, in so difficult a field as economics. It is too much to say that Professor Raper has thoroughly succeeded in doing the impossible. However it is not too much to say that he has written a text that may serve the useful function of introducing the great problems of our industrial life to high school students, many of whom are destined never to get the more advanced economic training that is so much needed as a preparation for intelligent citizenship.

- Sakolski, A. M.** *The Finances of American Trade Unions.* Pp. 152. Johns Hopkins University Studies in History and Political Science, vol. xxiv, Nos. 3 and 4.
- Sonneberg, Walter.** *Social Eccentricities.* Pp. 54. New York: Broadway Publishing Co., 1906.
- Spargo, John.** *Socialism.* Pp. xvi, 257. Price, \$1.25. New York: Macmillan Co., 1906.  
Reserved for later notice.
- Thwaites, R. G.,** Edited by. *Travels in Great Western Prairies; Oregon Missions; and Travels Over the Rockies.* Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
- Williams, J. M.** *An American Town—A Sociological Study.* Pp. 251. New York: James Kempster Printing Co., 1906.  
Reserved for later notice.

## REVIEWS.

**The Cambridge Modern History. Vol. ix, Napoleon.** Pp. xxviii, 946. Price, \$4.00. New York: Macmillan Co., 1906.

This volume of the Cambridge Modern History very properly, indeed one might say inevitably, bears the name of the man who by his single personality and genius completely dominated the years it treats. Not even a Cæsar, a Charlemagne, or a Louis XIV., was so entirely the architect of his fortunes or the prince-creator of his power throughout so vast a region, as was the little Corsican upstart. These are sentiments expressed by the editors with which students of history will in the main agree, and we have a right therefore to expect in this volume that unity which the character and continuity of the great Napoleonic tragedy stamp upon the period.

The volume falls into twenty-four chapters contributed by sixteen authors, of whom five are foreigners. The subject-matter includes the history from the beginning of the Consulate in 1799 to the close of the exile at St. Helena. From this it is apparent that this volume is not intended to cover all the career of Napoleon. The early life and the particular circumstances underlying his rise are treated in the volume on the French Revolution; likewise the brilliant campaigns in Italy and Egypt, the overthrow of the Directory and Bonaparte's usurpation fall outside the limits of the present volume. On the other hand that great diplomatic prologue to the international history of the nineteenth century, the Congress of Vienna, in which the nations of Europe for the first time met to settle the troublesome affairs of international politics by peaceful deliberations, and laid the basis for the political conditions of Europe for decades, is included.

It requires no demonstration therefore to show that the title of the volume is misleading and inaccurate. The editors would have done well if

they had adopted the latter half of the title of Mr. Rose's well known little volume, and called the work "The Napoleonic Era." This title would correspond precisely with the scope and significance of the volume, and avoid the deception incident in a field where biographies are so numerous.

The work of the contributors is of a high order of merit. In such cases as John Holland Rose, Von Pflugk-Hartung, and Professors Pariset and Guillard the names are in themselves a guarantee of excellence, but the general level of historical writing is well maintained. About a third of the space is devoted to what might be called the domestic affairs of the Empire, to matters pertaining to the administration and institutions of the imperial régime. Among these Professor Pariset's two chapters on The Consulate, and France under the Empire, and Professor Guillard on France and her Tributaries are conspicuous. Another third deals with the wars, and the remainder with the international relations of the period. In the latter are the two excellent chapters already alluded to, by the senior editor, Mr. Ward, on the Congress of Vienna, and two rather extraneous chapters, considering the title of the volume, one on Great Britain and Ireland, 1792-1815, and the other on the British Empire, 1783-1815. In the latter which is the joint work of Rev. W. H. Hutton and Professor H. E. Egerton, four out of the forty-six pages deal with Napoleon.

The chapter on St. Helena by H. D. L. Fisher, the student of the statesmen of the Napoleonic period, deserves commendation. After all that has been written in recent years on the "Last Phase," the temptation to review again the various points in controversy must have been strong. Mr. Fisher has wisely avoided this and after making a brief, straightforward narrative statement of the relations of the imperial prisoner and the English, devotes the bulk of the space to the significance of the captivity, the character and importance of the memoirs and correspondence, and Napoleon's objects and motives for their dictation. For, as Mr. Fisher well says, the Napoleonic legend has been an influential force in the politics of Europe; and the legend owes much to the artifices of the exile. The contributions of Mr. Rose on the Empire at its Height, and on the Continental System are illuminating, especially the latter. In view of the fact that so little of value has been written on this subject in English, and, if we except Lumbrosa's *Napoleone I e l' Inghilterra*, in any language, the chapter assumes a particular significance. Space does not permit an analysis, but the exposition of the damaging effect of Napoleon's artificial trade regulations on the continental seaports merits special mention. The facts in regard to Hamburg, taken largely from Hitzgrath, illustrate the nature of the calamity wrought by Napoleon's boomerang. In 1811 "300 ships lay dismantled in the harbour; out of 428 sugar refineries, only one remained at work; and all the cotton-printing works were closed. . . . All the conditions which clog the operation of trade reigned supreme in Hamburg. The extortions of the conquerors completed its misery. . . . The fate of the great free city was one of unequalled severity, but everywhere throughout Germany the Continental System produced feelings of exasperation and fear which

had no small share in bringing about the War of Liberation." The wide ramifications of Napoleon's international policy appear in the other chapter by Mr. Rose, though it is pushing the case a little far to declare "that the Spanish rising saved Prussia from virtual extinction and the Turkish Empire from partition." Very interesting, too, just at this time, is the account of Russia's acquisition of Finland, announced first by Alexander I. as a conquest by the sword, but, because of the objections and brave resistance of the Finns, modified completely before the end of 1808 by the promulgation of the Act of Guarantee securing their liberties. Thus even before the action of the Congress of Vienna, Russia herself, by a solemn agreement, promised to respect the ancient privileges and rights of the duchy.

The treatment of that great episode in the history of Germany, the war of liberation, by the eminent scholar, Julius von Pflugk-Hartung, is disappointing because the author, either from preference or the exigencies of the plan of the volume, devotes himself too exclusively to military matters. This is all the more to be regretted because of the writer's manifest grasp of the larger phases of the subject, as evidenced in the paragraph on page 509, beginning, "This time, however, it was a question not of kings and officials, but of the soul of a people," and the fact that such an important factor as the new patriotic literature receives but a passing notice on page 335. Professor Stschepkin's account of Russia under Alexander I. and the campaign of 1812 is more readable, but suffers from a similar tendency. It is, however, pervaded by the great issues at stake; the fate of half a million men—"the grand army which bore within itself the seeds of dissolution"—the hopes of the Poles, and the fears of Russia and Europe, give a larger aspect to the details of the campaign. "The part which destiny had assigned him (Napoleon) was played out," "neither the Russian frost nor the National Rising, but his own strategic blunders, caused his downfall."

The chapters by Professor Pariset on the internal conditions of France for these years possess that perspicacity peculiar to French scholarship, and afford very instructive reading. His treatment of the institutions of the Empire, concluded by the following sentence, will receive careful reading by all students of the period: "The nobility, the University, the Continental System, and the Church, transformed into the handmaid of the State—these were the four basic columns on which the fabric of the Empire reposed." On the other hand, the paragraph of names and dates on page 133, in connection with the author's discussion of the scientific movement of the period, strongly reminds one that this is a work not for consecutive reading, but rather for reference.

The bibliographies are arranged for the topics treated in the different divisions of the work. In the list of "Later Biographical Works," Bourne's English edition of Fournier, Napoleon I. should be cited with the German. No effort is made at a critical estimate either of secondary works or of source material. A commendable departure is found in the survey of the

"Manuscript sources on the Consulate and the Empire existing at Paris," by Charles Schmidt, in the paragraphs giving a general sketch of the published and unpublished documents on "The War of 1809," and Mr. Ward's comments on the accessibility of the archives for the period, especially for 1815.

W. E. LINGELBACH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

**Duniway, C. A.** *Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts.* Pp. xvi, 202. Price, \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1906.

This new volume in the "Harvard Historical Studies" is a careful account of the development of law and administrative procedure in Massachusetts in reference to the press. It is a work for a small field which it is to be hoped may some time be extended to cover all the States of the Union and for a period bringing us down to this present day of grace. Some of the difficulties of the task are made the subject of intimations in Mr. Duniway's preface, but they should not be insuperable and whoever will stop to make the study is certain to find it a fruitful one. A time will come when we shall discover the need of devoting sufficient care and attention to this great ill defined, misdirected thing we call journalism at least to write its history. We may do no more toward making its rules, customs and privileges an exact body of knowledge but this will be much, and he who reads and ponders it will be better for the very responsible tasks of editing and publishing newspapers.

Dr. Duniway has stepped aside for no theorizing. He says that his essay is an extended doctor's thesis and it bears the characteristic impress of the hand of the young docent, although we know that his later observations and experiences equip him for work of a more broadly useful kind. The early Puritan restrictions upon the press in Massachusetts are not so very different from those exercised in Pennsylvania by the Quaker theocracy, and other of the original states will furnish similar cases. How much wiser than our sires we have become at this day it would be very rash to guess and what are the advantages which have accrued to this American people by their policy towards the press can be stated in pleasant terms only in our moments of optimism. Perhaps it is quite proper that we should give the newspaper publisher all the power which he assumes and so jealously holds fast to, when his liberties are threatened, through all the powerful agencies at his hand. It is certain, however, and the most casual student knows it, that the newspaper and the business of publishing it have wholly changed in a century. While at the time our laws were made it was open to practically every person to print a paper, just as he could talk to his friends, or address a public meeting, in these days of costly typesetting machines, news agency monopolies and the like it is a money making business for the Jews and other capitalists, or if it have philanthropy of any kind in it an indulgence only for the very rich. From a small sheet, meant primarily to influence political opinion, it has become a great book of sheets, illustrated, "headlined" and departmentalized. It purports to tell us what the world is doing and when it succeeds

in being a truthful relator of happenings it is principally a disquieting crime and suicide instigating record of the world's errors and mistakes. Such a press is not the press which the ancestors of our English speaking peoples struggled to make free. It is a very different thing. In what way it might be improved by the government it is difficult to see. We only know that it is a unit in assailing such movements whenever they are attempted as in Pennsylvania, where changes in no manner essential to any well intentioned publisher were made recently in the libel laws. Having protested against this action with unreasoning vehemence the newspapers proceed to evade the new rules imposed upon them by the state and there is no power to compel such lawbreakers. The obvious way to treat such a press if you wish anything good to come out of it is to adopt Jay Cooke's plan during the Civil war—buy it outright. Each year this tends to become a larger and larger task, but in all seriousness no multi-millionaire philanthropist who has secure hold of his hoard and has only one remaining task—to use it in making easier his journey through the Celestial Gates, could do a better thing than to endow one good, honest, truth-loving, reputation-respecting newspaper which would print morning and evening editions in each large American city.

ELLIS P. OBERHOLTZER.

*Philadelphia.*

**Hall, Prescott F.** *Immigration.* Pp. xiii + 393. Price, \$1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906.

Under the editorship of Mr. R. C. Ringwalt it is planned to publish a series of volumes dealing with present American problems. Mr. Ringwalt himself prepared a very valuable book not long ago, "Briefs on Public Questions." The present volume is the first of the series.

The author, for many years secretary of the Immigration Restriction League of Boston, has been prominent in discussions of this topic and has been in a position to get at the facts. He would not stop all immigration in spite of the evils he sees but would greatly restrict it and on the whole thinks the literacy test the best. So much for his general position.

The volume is divided into four parts. Part I—88 pages—is devoted to the history of immigration into the U. S., the causes, economic and social. Part II—91 pages—The Effects of Immigration. Part III—119 pages—Immigration. Part IV—12 pages—Chinese Immigration—with 35 pages of appendices containing statistical tables, resolutions of the National Immigration Conference, United States Immigration Laws, bibliography and index.

Mr. Hall desires that this volume be considered an unbiased study of a great problem. In spite of evident effort to fairly state all sides of the questions discussed he overemphasizes, unconsciously, perhaps, the unfavorable element. He has been a propagandist too long. Like all propagandists he occasionally makes big statements and fails to produce the evidence. Thus on page 33 in discussing the causes of immigration he writes: "One of the most important causes, however, and one very little noticed, is the protective tariff." To this "important cause" he devotes ten lines only

of argument but offers no proof. In the following paragraph he asserts that new machinery has lowered the grade of immigrants—again no evidence. In discussing the “racial conditions” thirty pages are given to snap judgments of the different peoples coming here. *Armenians*: “On the whole they are not desirable immigrants.” *French Canadians*: “They fail to educate their children and they lower the average of intelligence and morality.” *English*: “The class of inferior immigrants tends to increase.” “The French immigrants are in every way desirable additions.” “The German immigrants are thrifty and industrious.” The author favors the Finns, but is very doubtful about the Greeks and Jews. *Irish*: “On the whole they have been essentially mediocre.” *Italians*, “unless they can be induced to go into the country districts, to adopt the idea of permanent settlement, and to bring over families or intermarry here, it is to be feared that the second and third generations will contribute a large number of defectives and delinquents.” To me this chapter appears as of very doubtful value. Much space cannot be here devoted to a criticism of the author’s conclusions. He presents a great amount of very valuable information: the points he discusses are of importance, but the evidence is often lacking to justify his views. If he believes that immigration is to have such disastrous racial, economic and social effects he should immediately advocate the stopping of all immigration. There is no evidence to show that “the criminality of the native element tends to diminish.” To sum up, the volume teems with loose generalizations which are either *ex cathedra* statements or depend upon statistical evidence often open to great criticism.

In the chapter dealing with the History of Immigration Legislation the author fails to show how the legislation of New York and Massachusetts became the basis of the Federal Legislation. The author discusses in detail the effects of the present laws and the proposed new legislation.

The volume under review is the most comprehensive book on the subject of the last decade. It discusses practically all of the questions which have arisen and of the suggestions made for avoiding the dangers. It deserves careful attention in spite of its very serious defects. The bibliography is brief but well classified.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

CARL KELSEY.

**Hishida, Seiji G.** *The International Position of Japan as a Great Power.*

Pp. 289. New York: The Columbia University Press, 1905.

This book is the third part of volume 24 of the Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University. It traces “Japan’s historic policy in dealing with foreign nations” in order to demonstrate that her entrance into the “family of nations” does not constitute a “peril” to either Eastern or Western civilization. The question is approached in a logical and systematic order. First, the character of international society in general is discussed. Then come in sequence chapters on the International Society of Ancient Asia, Dreams of Universal Empire, The First Intercourse of Japan with the European Nations, Reopening of the Sealed Japan, Japan’s Entry into the

Comity of Nations, Modern International Relations of Japan with Asiatic Nations, The Far Eastern Question.

This work forms a valuable addition to the political literature of the day. Most books on the Far East, written by persons whose point of view is exclusively Occidental, must be approached with suspicion. The West cannot assimilate the Japanese as completely as have the Japanese the West. It is as an interpretation of the Far Eastern situation by a Japanese who has taken the trouble to understand European and American ideas that we must consider this book. Its scope is international, yet it throws many side lights upon the history of political theories in the East which the student can find elsewhere only with great labor. Even so notable a work as Dunning's *History of Political Theories* is confined exclusively to the philosophy of the European Aryan peoples. This is because the legal, ethical and theological ideas of the Orient are so difficult to separate from the purely political. This volume on Japan is incidentally a contribution to the work of disentanglement. At least it should lead to a realization that, though with tardy growth, the spirit of nationalism is and has been taking form in the East, and that with this growth has come in Eastern thought a partial separation of the political from the ethical and religious. The time has come when the student of political science can no longer disregard the political theories of the East.

Historically there are many parallels between the development of international society in the East and in the West. The national state could not have its birth until the dream of universal empire had been dissipated by the repeated failures of ambitious Asiatic leaders. Ideas of national sovereignty then became prominent, and save where affected by the "white peril" had their natural growth. Japan, more apt than her neighbors has learned the lessons of the West, and has become the dominant power of the Orient. Two incidents of her rise were two wars, one with an Eastern and the other with a Western power. As a result she now occupies a position in the East somewhat analogous to that held by the United States among the Americas. The United States cannot therefore consider the conclusion of Japan ill-founded that Russia not Japan is the "peril" in the East.

The practical conclusion of the book is that in her relations with both Eastern and Western nations Japan has shown herself to be able and ready to advance the civilization of the world. The policy of Japan is stated as follows: "It is the desire of Japan to preserve in the Orient the national status of those of her sister Asiatic nations which are not yet subjugated by foreign powers, and to lead them to that light of western civilization which she is now enjoying, without having abandoned her national individualism. . . . The Mikado and his statesmen have from time immemorial regarded the peace of the Korean peninsula as an object of vital importance to the welfare of Japan, and the preservation of Korean integrity has become the traditional policy of the Island Empire. For the attainment of this end Japan fought with China in 1894, with Russia in 1904, and will fight at any cost in the future with any power. . . . Though Japan has



often been at enmity with China prior to the war of 1894, yet, when the latter's territorial integrity was threatened by foreign powers, she at once manifested her interest in the preservation of the Celestial empire. . . . So long as China is incapable of maintaining single-handed an independent existence and of withstanding the external pressure of aggressive powers, Japan will not shirk her responsibility, even if called upon for armed assistance, as was demonstrated by the recent war. . . . The civilized nations of the West should have faith in Japan's leadership in helping China, because Japan has not only pledged herself to maintain Chinese territorial integrity and the open-door policy in public documents, but has also fulfilled this pledge in practice." Japan calls upon the nations for recognition as a promotor of the peace of "the world, the progress of humanity, the prosperity of each individual nation, the reconciliation of the East and West."

Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, in the August, 1906, number of the *North American Review* concurs in this view in the following words: "It is well that the fact has become recognized in Europe and in the United States that Japan means to be, and is to be, the dominant factor in the Far East, and that any commercial or other advantages in the distant Orient, which Europe and America desire to secure, can be obtained only by the same legitimate methods these nations employ in their dealings with each other. The recognition of this existing situation, which has become so thoroughly accentuated through the result of the Russo-Japanese War, is certain to make for lasting peace in the Far East."

Mr. Hishida's work is a thoroughly creditable performance. Were it not for the fact that it lacks an index it would serve as a compact reference book on the international history of Japan, China and Korea. No modern book, whether part of a series or not, should be separately issued without an index. The authorities are, however, given throughout, and the appendix contains a bibliography. The reader would appreciate it if a good map were contained in the book. A typographical error appears on page 183, where in the paragraph heading, "Spain" is printed instead of "Siam." Without detracting from the serious character of the work, there is occasionally a touch of imagery perhaps suggestive of Japanese methods of thought as shown in their works of art, poetry, etc. An example is the following (p. 60): "The Mongol Tartar, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, was surging from the grassy plains of Manchuria over the Asiatic and even the European continents; and the wave flung its last drops of spray over Japan."

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FREDERICK C. HICKS.

**Merriam, George S.** *The Negro and the Nation: A History of American Slavery and Emancipation.* Pp. iv, 436. Price, \$1.75, net. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906.

The book is without preface. Much of its ground had been covered by the author, twenty years earlier, in his *Life and Times of Samuel Bowles*. Up to the reconstruction period, the narrative scarcely exceeds in space

that given to the same topics in that former work, while dependence is evident down to chapter headings and phraseology, and historical judgments are substantially unchanged.

The new material is of two sorts: first a group of some dozen picturesque and generally fair, if somewhat wordy, character sketches of the chief leaders of the slavery struggle. For these the author is frankly indebted to others, e. g., for Calhoun to Von Holst, (corrupted into Van Holst on p. 75), for Clay to Schurz. The other new element is an attempt to formulate the "underlying forces" and to define their relations at critical points. But vaguely distinguished are the respective roles of personalities and impersonal forces. The general argument is that the Fathers uniformly regarded slavery as wrong and temporary; that the cotton-gin fastened it upon the south as a seeming economic necessity; that the increasing anti-slavery conscience of the north was not due to superior righteousness, but to absence of contrary motive; that, with Calhoun, the south began to justify in theory what it practiced for gain; that neither sting of irritating misunderstanding nor alleged northern oppression, can excuse this; that secession was an act of passion illustrating the moral effect of slavery upon the master. With these deep persuasions goes a surprising intellectual appreciation for, and accurate interpretation of the southern position. "Slavery as it was" is presented from the combined view-points of Uncle Tom's Cabin, Dabney's biography, Fanny Kemble's journal, Olmsted's travels, Helper's *Impending Crisis* and Stroud's *Slave Laws*, and illumined by considerable quotations.

The treatment of reconstruction is at once the freshest and most systematic part of the book. It was morally impossible, the author holds, in the face of the Black Codes, to allow reconstruction without Federal intervention on behalf of the freedman. The Civil Rights bill was wise, but the disqualification of ex-confederate leaders from citizenship a blunder. With the prevailing view of suffrage as a natural human right, its unlimited extension to the negro was better than any alternative seriously supported, however much one may wish that still other alternatives had been. The detailed rights and wrongs of the reconstruction struggle in the several states are given up as past sifting. Undoubtedly the carpet-bag governments were defective, but they were not so exclusively alien as is commonly represented, and their extravagance and corruption has been much overstated. The gravitation of the south to white control was inevitable, upon the withdrawal of Federal troops, and not undesirable. In contrast with reconstruction, "regeneration" is the motto of an eloquent, if somewhat inconsequent, section on Armstrong and the Hampton idea of education.

Three final chapters summarize the evolution and present arrangement of forces in the south. On the part of the whites are the re-assumption of political control, the acceptance of responsibility for negro education, the development of the dogma of social inequality and the shibboleth of racial purity. Under these limitations, the negro has made hopeful progress, economic, educational and moral. The reactions of a worse spirit are seen in the unfair administration of suffrage-limitations, occasional anti-educational sentiment, the narrowing industrial opportunity of the negro and physical

outrages upon him. Hopeful omens are that the economic forces which seemed for slavery are against race prejudice, the still considerable industrial freedom of the negro in the south, the educational reforms which mean better things for both races, and the fact that a limited suffrage will be a stimulus to attainment, if administered in good faith.

Of specific issues, the author thinks the proposed reduction of southern representation in congress constitutional under the Fourteenth Amendment, but having nothing else in its favor; he urges a Federal grant for southern education, and advises the recognition of individual fitness for social fellowship as the better alternative for the social color-line.

*Springfield, Mo.*

H. PAUL DOUGLASS.

**Meyer, Hugo R.** *Municipal Ownership in Great Britain.* Pp. xii, 340.

Price, \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1906.

Professor Meyer of the University of Chicago has not given us much information about the subject covered by the title of his suggestive book, but has devoted the major portion of his space to establish the conclusions that cities should not have even the partial rights in granting and controlling public service corporations accorded in Great Britain, and that franchises of the long period of 42 years conceded in electric light since 1888 are not as good for the people as the far longer or perpetual franchises that obtain in some of our states. Such an onslaught on home rule and short term franchises such as the National Municipal League and nearly all municipal reformers now favor whether believers in municipal ownership or not, is quite staggering. The whole matter is thus summed up in the closing chapter: "The doctrine that the public service industries which use the public streets differ essentially from ordinary trading and manufacturing ventures and that they should be subjected to special limitations and special taxation designed to secure to the public at large a share in their profits, has permanently paralyzed every public service industry to which it has been applied." In establishing this thesis most of the chapters are devoted to an historical review of legislation along these lines in Great Britain and to many comparisons of the greater development of electric light and street railways per capita in America. Although some space is devoted to gas where municipal ownership has prevailed far longer and has had for this and other reasons far better chance on a large scale to show its tendencies in England and Scotland, yet very curiously the author omits all comparisons between per capita sales of gas there and here. Such omission is all the more interesting in view of the larger sales per capita abroad than with us.

The use of electricity in America and its effect on our other industries and on international competition would have been far more effectively treated by one who was trying to show it all to be a result of unlimited, uncontrolled franchises if the German situation had been omitted. On page 198 he says, "The cities of Germany, in part under the influence of the example of British legislation, also adopted the policy of bartering in electric lighting franchises. The result was that German private enterprise was excluded

from the field of public electric lighting while that industry was in the formative period." This taken in conjunction with the rest of the argument would lead one to expect that Germany would be cited as a very backward country electrically, from whom Great Britain has nothing to fear. On page 304, however, we are told "Precisely in so far as Great Britain's supply of cheap electric current is inferior to that of Germany," where be it remembered "German private enterprise is excluded from the field of public electric lighting, just so far is Great Britain handicapped in producing the aforesaid products of industry;" pure copper and aluminum, caustic soda, bleaching powder and electrical apparatus and machinery, "for the purpose of sale in the world's markets. Again, in Germany the belt and shaft are rapidly disappearing from the factories and machine tools, looms, etc., are being driven by separate electric motors. All of these things tell in the struggle between England and Germany in the world's markets."

In this connection it may be suggested that a large part of the electric power used in American manufacturing establishments is not at all derived from public service corporations, but is generated directly by the users.

Much is made of the graded tramway fares in the municipal plants of Great Britain as the great obstacle to a healthful scattering of the population in suburbs, but there is nowhere a statement that graded fares originated in private ownership and that the whole tendency of city ownership has been to a great enlargement of the zones and reduction of fares, which are big steps in the direction of easier access to the suburbs. Dublin and Bristol are described as showing the advantages today of private street railways, but the fact that they also have graded fares is not mentioned. The habits of the people, the exemption of idle land from taxation and other causes of overcrowding in the English cities are scarcely touched upon.

We are told that through lack of the right to purchase gas works at their structural value at the expiration of a definite term of years cities have been forced to pay large amounts in excess of structural value. In the 77 cases of municipal purchase from 1844 to 1903 where the facts appear to be known the cities according to Professor Meyer paid, in 35 per cent of the cases, from \$150 to \$193 for every \$100 invested, and in 52 per cent of the cases from \$200 to \$272, while on buying out the electric lighting company before the expiration of the franchise Birmingham paid \$2,100,000 for a \$1,095,000 investment in the plant, Liverpool \$2,000,000 for \$1,250,000 and Sheffield \$218 for every \$100 investment.

It would not seem as though private capital had much ground to complain or that the British cities realizing the large possibilities in electricity, are to be blamed for having Parliament so word grants to private electric light and tramway companies as to render purchase possible on the basis of structural values at the end of 21 or 42 years.

Professor Meyer, however, has undoubtedly struck the weakest point in all limited franchises when he holds that any restriction on a private company may lessen the flow of capital into it, yet he surely would have government surround it with the greatest restriction conceivable, namely,

prohibit rival companies entering the field. If he would not do this, a practical monopoly would any way soon result after considerable duplication of plant and over capitalization. If the government either created the monopoly or left it to create itself and undertook no regulation more than in private business and provided for no method of city purchase within the life of the existing generation at the structural value or at a small advance above such value, it is probable that in some cases, as Professor Meyer believes, there would be greater enterprise and development than with any sort of regulation. In other cases a company secure of a monopoly would become unprogressive, but the possibilities of high charges and of monopoly profit on the part of such an unregulated public service industry are so much impressed upon our people that the only practical question before us is efficient regulation or ownership. In the solution of this we get little help from our author. The effect of municipal ownership in improving wages, hours of labor, etc., is hardly mentioned. The immediate financial profits of municipal ownership appear to be conceded. We are told that in 1898-9 "all but forty-eight of the 222 municipal gas plants of the United Kingdom paid the interest and sinking fund payments properly chargeable against them," and that the average receipts and consequently the charges were only six-sevenths as much per thousand feet as by the private companies, although this better showing may be due, it is suggested, to the municipal plants serving more populous centres. The difference, however, in average size is not great.

In electric light and street railways it is not claimed that private ownership in Great Britain has proved as profitable to the community as has municipal ownership, although it is contended by Professor Meyer and probably with truth, that outside of gas private management has been more handicapped than municipal ownership by franchises of twenty-one to forty-two years.

One of the advantages always claimed by the friends of municipal ownership is that it can count on perpetual life. The public does not dare to give this advantage any more to private ownership. What this work, interesting to all students of the problem, has really accomplished is to trace the history of British legislation, show its recent conscious trend toward municipal ownership and point out the much more rapid development of street railways and electric lighting in America; but unfortunately without reference to the political evils that have attended it, and without explaining the large development of electrical industries in Germany, under even greater safeguarding of franchises than in England.

An equally interesting book might be written on the greater development of sewing machines, elevators, typewriters, farm machinery, etc., in America than in Europe, though in those cases public regulation and ownership were equally absent on both continents.

But however much one may differ from the conclusions reached in this book, every student of the subject must feel indebted to the author for the clear summary and quotation which he has given of the opposing arguments urged at each stage of legislation and the changes that were made

from time to time in the laws and their execution, and for his interesting statistical comparisons between English and American developments. Unfortunately the many quotations from parliamentary and other reports and addresses are chiefly drawn from only one side of the controversy and could easily have been matched by equally weighty official statements and reports on the other side.

Cleveland, Ohio.

EDWARD W. BEMIS.

**Michels, R.** *Patriotismus und Ethik: Eine kritische Skizze.* Pp. 32. Price, 50 pf. Leipzig: Felix Dietrich, 1906.

Samuel Johnson's famous definition of patriotism might have served as motto for Robert Michels' *Patriotismus und Ethik*. From the point of view of a German socialist the writer subjects to a most brilliant and merciless criticism various current ideas of patriotism and fatherland. Whether the latter be conceived as place of birth and early training, as the seat of one's race, as the source of one's subsistence, as a community of interest within political limits, or simply as the state of which one is a citizen, Michels succeeds in showing that fatal absurdities and inequalities must result. To him class standards and not international boundaries are the real social line of cleavage in the modern world. Many readers, particularly on this side of the Atlantic, will not find it easy to agree with his statement that the sole factors which have formed the fatherland-state are force, war, and dynastic marriages. Nevertheless with some rearrangement and with certain citations of new material much of Michels' criticism of ordinary sentimental patriotism would be as valid applied to American as to German conditions. In concluding his study our author expresses the opinion that an ethical basis for patriotism may be found in national civilization, "not the enforced civilization of savages by means of brandy and the Bible, but rather civilization as the basis of the progress of humanity on its path to the realization of the greatest possible physical and intellectual welfare, physical and intellectual capacity for enjoyment, the greatest possible earthly welfare." This is altogether beautiful, and largely commendable, doubtless, yet if subjected to the same logical process that our author himself applies to other concepts it could readily be resolved into thin air. Reacting from extreme to extreme one is tempted to recall in this connection Senator Conkling's famous *mot* to the effect that when Doctor Johnson defined patriotism as the last refuge of a scoundrel he forgot the infinite possibilities that lurk within the word reform.

Swarthmore College.

ROBERT C. BROOKS.

**Warne, Frank Julian.** *The Coal Mine Workers, a Study in Labor Organizations.* Pp. x, 251. Price, \$1.00. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1905.

Few people who glibly discuss the trade union have any actual knowledge of its manner of working, or its actual purposes. The unions are often much abused and misunderstood institutions, possessing the same virtues and shortcomings as other political and commercial organizations. Dr. Warne has

done a valuable service in placing in compact and readable form a study of the United Mine Workers of America, one of the strongest labor unions in the world. This book treats in an impartial manner the history, development, and growth of organization among the coal mine workers; the relation of the union to the business of coal mining; and the influence of the union upon its members.

The constitution and machinery of the trade union are discussed, showing that its principles are established in "right and justice," but that the placing of so much power in the hands of the leaders, as strikes have necessitated, makes everything depend upon their character. A brief and sympathetic sketch of John Mitchell and his work gives evidence of the wise choice of the United Mine Workers. The large amounts of money handled, and the heavy interests involved have caused this trade union to become in fact a great business, where success depends upon close observance of market conditions and the obeying of laws governing these conditions.

A large part of the book is given to a description of the working of the Interstate Joint Conference and the State Conferences, which are satisfactory examples of bargaining between trade unions and operators, making for stability in business. The basis of these conferences, the agreements or contracts entered into as well as the machinery which brings them into existence, are facts well worth knowing. This is followed by an outline of the work of the Anthracite Board of Conciliation which has temporarily aided in settling vexed questions in the eastern sections.

The chapter on the strike is written in a fair and impartial spirit. Explanation is given of the various forms of pressure resorted to and the reason for them. All strikes of miners from 1898 to 1904 were for increase of wage; since then against reduction. The extent to which prices and conditions are affected by the competition between different coal regions is indicated in the history of the growth of the union, and the institution of strikes.

The book properly ends with a chapter on the trade union as an institution, an institution which has come to stay, which is the most important institution given to society by the labor movement, and which, effecting as it does such vast numbers, deserves a dispassionate understanding of its real meaning. Mr. Warne's previous study of anthracite coal mining conditions in "The Slav Invasion" has given him proofs of his statement that "It is through the operation of the trades union more so than through any other social agency, that the immigrants from many climes and diverse races are sooner brought into close touch with and made to conform to American standards and customs and institutions." The trade union method of protecting wage is likened to the tariff as a protection of American infant industries. The opposition to it is compared to the opposition and distrust of any new movement of reform.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

E. S. MEADE.

**Wise, John S.** *A Treatise on American Citizenship.* Pp. viii, 340. N. Y. Edward Thompson Company, 1906.

While this work was intended primarily by the author as a text-book on the law of citizenship, it is very evident from his preface that he hopes to appeal to many readers outside of the legal profession. Citizenship, in his opinion, is a subject which is "an indispensable part of the education of every man who makes pretension to a fair education and knowledge of the history of his country"; and "the present ignorance of our people, and the confusion in their apprehension of this subject would be something incredible in other countries."

Such a work as this is indeed timely, at a point in our history when we are for the first time attempting to govern as subjects remote and alien races. From now on the student of American history, if he is to understand our colonial affairs, must go into the law of citizenship. The author has given an excellent historical treatment of American citizenship, state and national, and a clear statement of the present status of the insular possessions in regard to citizenship. The discussion of how American citizenship may be acquired is too brief and incomplete. Both in this chapter and in the one dealing with the protection of citizens abroad the author could have obtained valuable material and suggestions from Van Dyne's work on this subject. These phases of citizenship are of great practical importance, and their scanty treatment is a serious fault in this work.

Fully a third of the book is devoted to an historical discussion and analysis of the Rights, Privileges and Immunities of the citizen, and it is evident that the author regarded this as the most important part of his subject. His method of treatment here is original, and is the most distinguishing feature of the work. On the historical side he emphasizes our obligations to the Dutch. His attempt at the classification and enumeration of the Rights, Privileges and Immunities granted or guaranteed to citizens by the United States has not been successful or profitable. His point of view in this enumeration is explained in his own words as follows: "These guarantees (of rights) were the necessary correlatives of the specific powers granted to the Federal government." In accordance with this principle he classifies the following as Rights:

To have an enumeration or census every ten years.

To uniform Federal laws of naturalization and bankruptcy throughout the United States.

To the creation and maintenance of a navy by the Federal government.

Many more instances of like character might be cited to illustrate the consequences of his method. It would be interesting to know by just what process a citizen would enforce his right to a census, every ten years, or to a Federal bankruptcy act, or to the creation and maintenance of a navy, in case Congress had not acted upon the powers delegated to it in these matters. Surely a right that cannot be enforced and protected by a court ought not to be called a legal right.

The treatment of the Privileges and Immunities under the war amendments is clear and comprehensive, and deserves special praise.



While Mr. Wise has given us here a useful and valuable work, it must be said that it leaves much to be desired, and that there is still room for a comprehensive text on the law of citizenship.

*University of Illinois.*

FRANK HAMSER.

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